CPEA —— *in Ohio*

No. 3

Antecedents and Effects of Administrator Behavior

David H. Jenkins
Charles A. Blackman
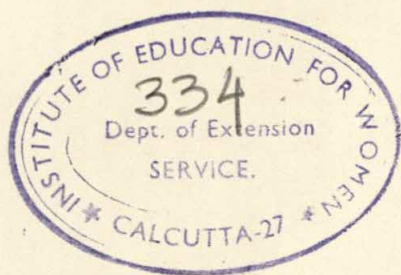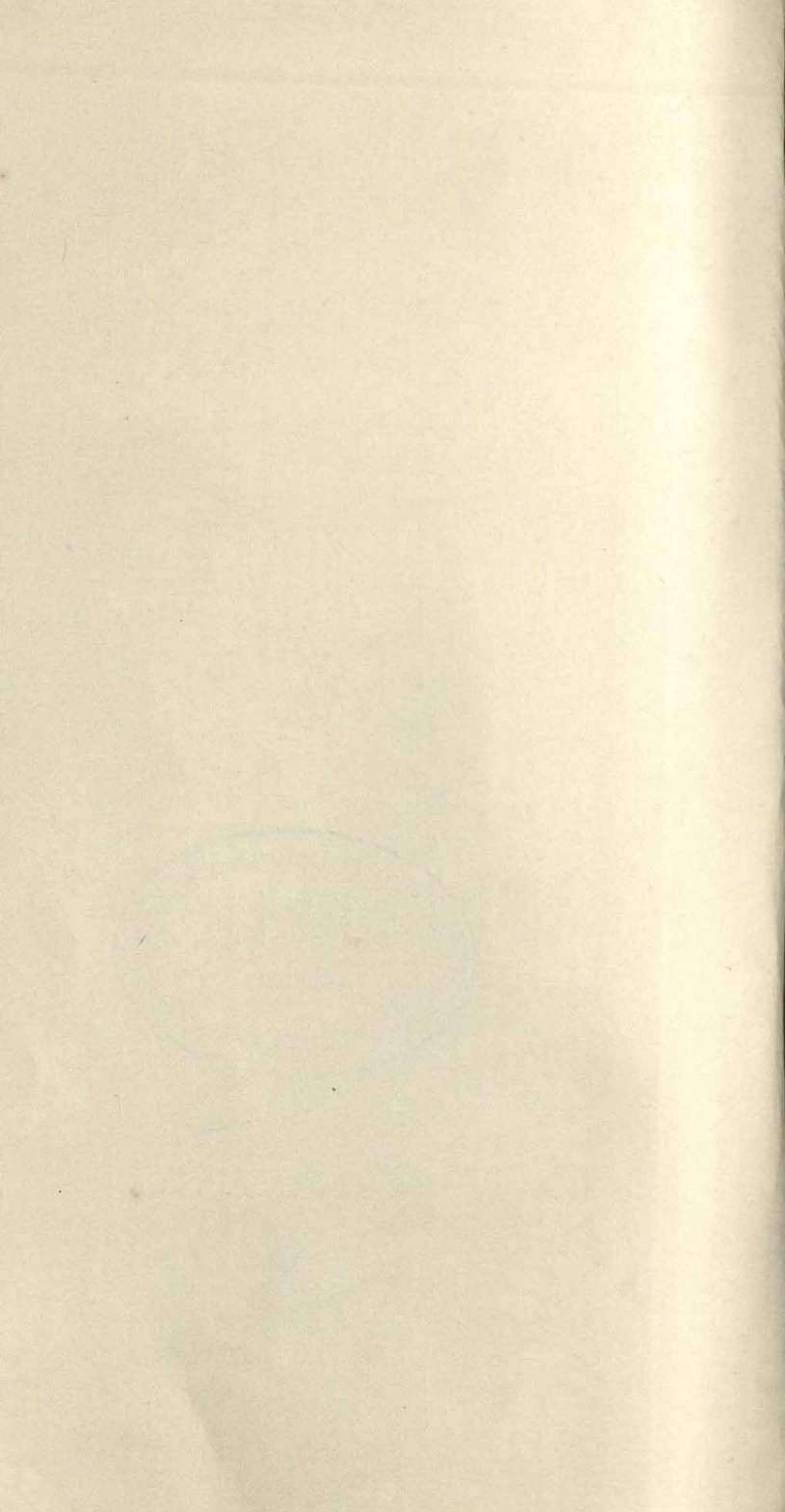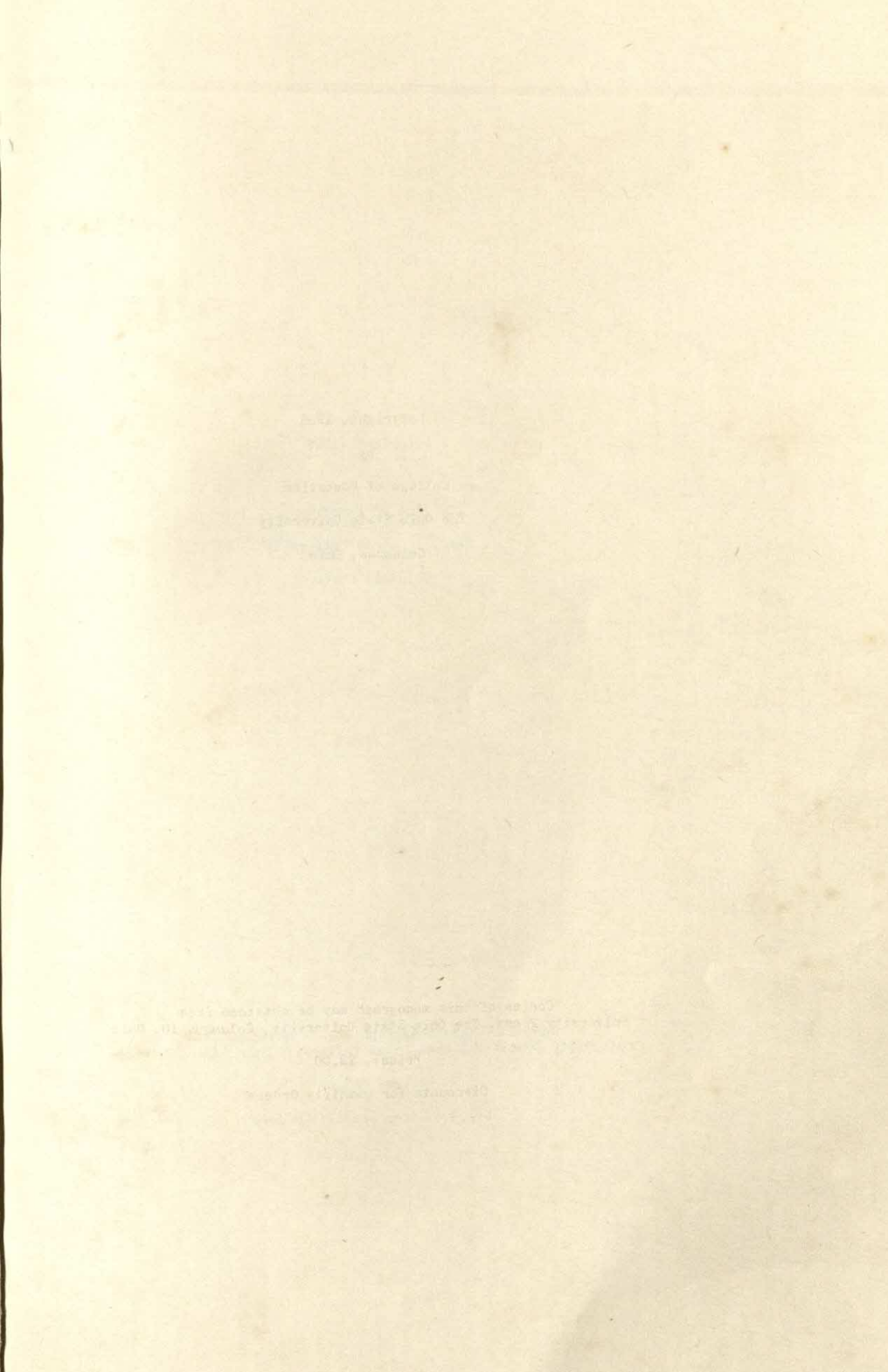
The School-Community Development Study

Monograph Series

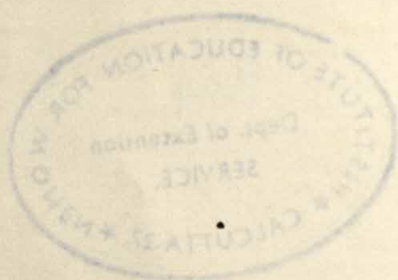Number Three
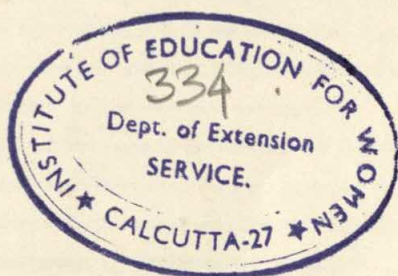
This is the third in a series of monographs which have grown out of the work of the School-Community Development Study, the Ohio Center for the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration. The research reported here concerns effects of the behavior of elementary-school principals upon the teachers with whom they worked. The study is based upon the assumption that the behavior of the administrator affects the behavior of teachers which, in turn, is reflected in the instruction of boys and girls. The question under investigation was "What are the effects of administrator behavior upon teacher behavior?" Tests, interviews, and observations were used to obtain the answers.

As one reads this report he cannot escape the obvious conclusion of the research team that the question is not a simple one. No ready recipe or formula can be given for administrator behavior. Many circumstances and conditions play upon the administrative situation. Answers to one important question rest upon those for other related and equally complicated questions. Hence, this study makes its contribution to the literature on administrator behavior through the many questions which it brings to mind as it describes administrator and related teacher behavior. The fact that the report may be disturbing to some administrators and cause uneasiness in the minds of professors of educational administration may turn out to be its real service to the profession. Certainly the field of concern is not closed by this inquiry. Rather, it has pointed up many aspects of the problem that might otherwise have escaped serious consideration.

Following the description of the research methodology and the various interesting findings, this report features case descriptions of four administrators. The contrasts among them suggest interesting implications not only for the employer of principals but for preparation and continuous growth of administrators in service.

The implications for the development of administrators suggested by the authors and discussed by their colleagues are aimed at stimulating thinking. In present'ng this study to the profession, the School-Community Development Study hopes to provide help not only to the administrator and to those who work directly with him, but to the employer, the instructor, and the researcher in educational administration.

Many people participated in the study. Their contributions are acknowledged in the preface which follows. Both authors were members of the School-Community Development Study staff at the time this research project was in progress. The School-Community Development Study is especially grateful to the Board of Education, the administrators, and the teachers of the Akron City Schools for their co-operation in the project.

FOREWORD

Dr. Roscoe Eckelberry, Editor, Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University

Mrs. Edith C. Rinehart, Editorial Assistant, Graduate School, The Ohio State University

and Dr. Howard Wakefield, Project Coordinator, School-Community Development Study, have

contributed greatly as editorial consultants.

                                                   John A. Ramseyer
                                                   Director

PREFACE

For some of us, finding an answer makes its greatest contribution in opening up new questions. And so it is with the study reported here. This is a formulation representing a cross section of ideas which are, at the same time, in transition.

It is our hope, however, that what is reported will be of use to persons who are in different ways concerned with educational administration. These include the professor who must improve the design of his graduate courses, the dean who is concerned with the over-all campus program, the administrator who has to meet the everyday problems of the school system, and the researcher who is, like the authors, struggling to develop more adequate understanding of the processes of school administration.

October 1, 1955
Columbus, Ohio

DHJ
CAB

vii

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The effectiveness of a school or school system is greatly influenced, if not fully determined, by the quality of its administration. The administrator is a key figure in maintaining the present educational level of the school program and in guiding its further development. His vision of needed school improvements influences the aspirations of others. His understanding and skill in human relations may affect . . . potential leadership by releasing the drive and intelligence of the faculty, the parents, and community leaders, and of children and adults attending the school.

"Hence, it is highly desirable that the functions of administration be scrutinized and that programs for the preparation of administrators as professional leaders be re-examined and, if need be, redesigned by institutions of teacher education."[1]

The importance of defining the functions of administration is obvious if the programs for the preparation of administrators are to be redesigned. We need to know more clearly than at present the nature of the crucial functions which the administrator performs so that the necessary attention can be given to them in the training programs and in the selection processes. Yet there seems to be little research which has defined specific functions which the educational administrator must perform if the school staff is to work effectively and the pupils in consequence are to receive the optimum learning experience.

The purpose of the study reported in this monograph was to delineate certain of the crucial processes through which the administrator affects the school situation. Until this has been done, we are not in a good position to determine what improvements can be made in a school system through training the administrator, and what improvements are not dependent upon changes in the administrator himself.

Theoretical Background of the Study

It is important to recognize that schools and school administration are not unique social phenomena. They are simply special instances of men's organizing to accomplish some of their purposes. In this sense schools are like factories, social agencies, churches, businesses, etc. Each of these institutions presents similar phenomena. In each, human beings are organized to carry out special tasks, and methods are developed by which these tasks can be co-ordinated and the goals achieved. Much work has been done by students of human behavior and human organization in an attempt to understand the phenomena which we find in these various institutions. There is a wealth of information and understanding available to the educator and the school administrator who is able to cast

---

[1]These are the opening paragraphs of the proposal submitted to the W. K. Kellogg Foundation by The Ohio State University. Acceptance of this proposal led to the establishment of the School-Community Development Study at the University as one of the eight centers in the nation-wide Cooperative Program in Educational Administration.

his problems in terms which make it possible to interpret these general principles fo
in his own setting.

In what respects do a plant manager and a school superintendent really differ?
are required to supervise the workings of a human organization in the performance of
task. The plant manager may be concerned with efficient production of electrical app
ances. The school superintendent is concerned with the efficient production of learn
in the students in the classroom.

In this study we were not interested primarily in gathering certain facts in a p
ticular school system. Our central concern was the establishment of certain general
hypotheses and the acquisition of information which would help us determine whether t
hypotheses had any validity. Through the testing of hypotheses, and their consequent
clarification and accurate definition, we can begin to build a dependable theory of hu
organization which has direct application to school administration.[2] This is the onl
in which we can make efficient use of the research data we collect in different situa-
tions. To proclaim that each school situation is unique, without recognizing certain
elements common to all school situations, prevents us from developing dependable insig
and principles which can be utilized to improve training and subsequent practice in the
field. The idea of complete uniqueness dissolves when we clarify the general dimensio
of all school situations. Understanding these dimensions is a fundamental problem for
research in educational administration.

Plan of This Study

Part I of this monograph reports a study which was one attempt to define the func-
tions of administration. It begins with Chapter II, which describes in detail the the-
oretical framework from which grew the design and methodology of the study itself. The
specific measuring instruments, procedures used, and the setting of the study are de-
scribed in Chapter III; the findings are set forth in Chapters IV and V.

In order to give specific meaning to some of the findings, four cases illustrating
different school situations and different administrative competencies are presented in
Chapter VI. A summary of the major conclusions is given in Chapter VII, and their im-
plications for the selection and training of school administrators are suggested in
Chapter VIII.

Part 2 consists of four chapters dealing with the application of the ideas and
findings of the study to different fields. Max R. Goodson, Assistant Dean of the Colleg
of Education at The Ohio State University, draws certain inferences for the in-service
training of school administrators, with particular emphasis on training in human relatio
and group dynamics.

---

[2]For an excellent statement of the relation of social science to an applied field
see (13).

What does this study mean to the practicing elementary-school principal? Robert L.
Nash, president of the Department of Elementary-School Principals of the Ohio Education
Association, and Richard L. Featherstone, who is an elementary principal in the Birming-
ham, Michigan public schools, give their answers to this question in Chapter X. In
Chapter XI, Ross L. Mooney, professor in the Bureau of Educational Research at The Ohio
State University, comments about the usefulness of this study in the development of educa-
tional research.

The purposes of the authors of this monograph will not be achieved if the reader con-
cerns himself only with the specific findings which are reported. We are sure that these
findings do not constitute a final answer to any question. They will serve their best
purpose insofar as they are useful in formulating principles and testing ideas in the
future.

This study will have its greatest value in contributing to the reader's ability to
think more clearly and effectively about problems of educational administration. A re-
formulation and clarification of the way one examines a situation will be of service to
the extent that he is enabled to use his own everday experience more fruitfully. They may
also permit him to define for himself formal research problems which need more careful
testing.
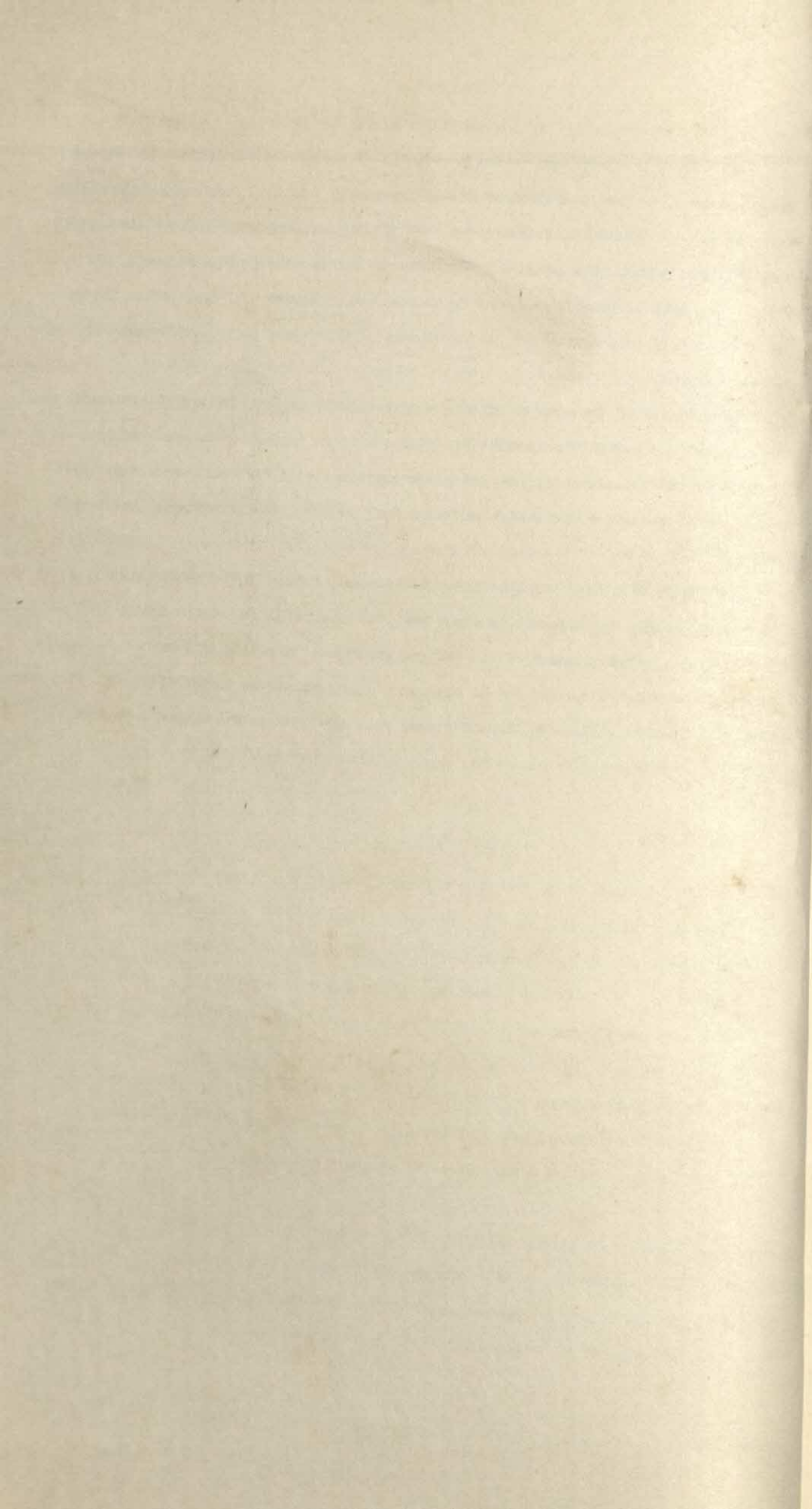
PART 1: THE STUDY

CHAPTER II

AN ANALYSIS OF ADMINISTRATION

Three forms of educational activity are carried on in the typical school: (1) the classroom activity of the children, (2) the classroom and staff activity of the teacher, and (3) the activity of the school administrator. The primary function of the school is to see that the activities of the children are such that desirable learning occurs. To teach the children, therefore, is the purpose of the school. In the other two forms of activity, the function of the teachers and the administrator is to create an environment in the school which is favorable to maximum learning. The ultimate criteria of their effectiveness are the kind and amount of learning which the children achieve.

The teacher affects the classroom activity by his presence in the classroom and through his control of it. The administrator, however, ordinarily works in an indirect relationship to the children. His primary relationship is with the general school setting and with the teachers who work in the classroom. Thus, school administration is one step removed from the actual learning activity of the children.

Even though the administrator is farther from the actual work in the classroom, he receives more training than the teacher on the assumption that what he does has a more far-reaching effect on what happens in the school life and, therefore, on the children as a group, than do the actions of any single teacher. This analysis suggests that the more important relationships the administrator has within his school are those which he maintains with his teaching staff. Whatever beneficial effects he produces must come through improvement of the teachers' ability to function effectively within their own classrooms. Conversely, other things being equal, the ability of a teacher to be effective in his classroom is determined in part by the kind of administration which is carried on in the school.

General Design

The type of analysis described served as a background for this study, which attempts to determine more closely some of the variables and the relationships involved in "effective school administration." The basic criterion for effectiveness in school administration is the quality of learning which results from the children's experiences in the school.

An analysis of school administration, especially as related to the preparation and selection of school administrators, reveals four components that deserve to be studied: (1) the qualities of the administrator--what he is like; (2) his behavior--what he does; (3) the effect of this behavior on the faculty; and (4) the effect on the students of the faculty's behavior. This study was designed to deal with the first three of these. The

basic assumption is that these components are related: the qualities of the administrator affect his behavior, his behavior brings about reactions on the part of his teachers, and these reactions affect the learning of the children. This study, therefore, used the reactions of the teachers to the administrator's behavior as a working criterion for good administration (11, 36).

The three components which were studied are further analyzed in the following paragraphs in an attempt to describe some of their important elements.

The Qualities of the Administrator

What is the administrator like? Essentially, what are the resources and limitations which he brings into the school?

The analysis suggests three major categories: (A) basic abilities and understandings, (B) intellectual processes, and (C) motivational-emotional processes and conditions. A careful description of the person who is taking an administrative role, based upon these three areas, should permit fairly accurate prediction of how well he will perform in a particular job situation.[1]

A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

The first area, basic abilities and understandings, includes the following: professional and interpersonal skills, professional information, self-information, basic intellectual ability, and physiological condition.

1. Professional and interpersonal skills, the capabilities which a person has developed for behaving in useful ways, embrace many specific skills. For example, does he know how to lead a faculty meeting--the techniques, skills, and procedures which are required? The primary concern is with the fund of abilities which an administrator brings to the job, not his ability to use them effectively in a particular situation.

2. Professional information includes the administrator's knowledge of schools in general, as well as of his own school situation, and information connected with a range and variety of problems related to his work.

3. The following questions illustrate self-information. How well does the administrator know himself? Has he analyzed his own capacities and behavior well enough to be able to size up the situation he faces, including his own reactions to it? This information is important for accurate planning.

4. Basic intellectual ability is differentiated from intellectual processes or ways of thinking (discussed in the following section). In addition to the administrator's intellectual endowment, his physiological condition must be considered, either on a

---

[1]It is assumed that the situation which this administrator enters has been carefully defined, and that there are understandings about what qualities are necessary in an administrator for effective performance in various types of situations. It seems quite clear that this information is not yet at hand.

temporary or a long-term basis. If he is not in good physical health, his entire behavior may be colored by that fact.

B. Intellectual Processes

Examination of the intellectual processes of the school administrator is pointed towards determining how he thinks, as distinguished from how well he thinks. Three qualities of the intellectual processes of an individual are capable of examination.[2] These are:

1. Comprehensiveness: How large a segment of the field does the person include in his thinking at a given time; what are the goals in that field; how broadly does he think?

2. Penetration: How deeply does he think; how fundamental does his thinking become about the issues involved?

3. Flexibility: How freely is he able to readjust his thinking as necessary in the analysis of a problem?

These qualities are described in greater detail in Chapter III.

C. Motivational-Emotional Processes and Conditions

The motivational-emotional conditions and processes constitute an element which affects the abilities and behavior of the administrator. The following are some examples of the qualities in this category:

1. Drive: How much energy output does this person have? Is he willing to give energy to the working situation in which he finds himself?

2. Security: Is he relatively free from anxieties which would reduce his effectiveness on the job? What kind of anxieties might he develop, and in what kinds of situations?

3. Self-other orientation: What is his primary orientation in any kind of working situation? Is he concerned with himself, with his own reactions, etc., or is he concerned with other persons and/or the situation in which he is working? Objective concern does not necessarily imply self-effacement; this variable deals generally with the principal focus of his attention in the work situation.

4. Self-acceptance: What does the administrator think of himself; does he think he is worth while, capable, etc.? Does he understand himself and work with what he has, instead of trying to be someone he can't be? This quality may be related to self-confidence but it does not seem to carry the overtones of ego identification suggested by self-assurance.

5. Other-acceptance: Does he find it difficult to accept others as they are without a judgmental attitude; or does he find it necessary to reject and blame others, or to project his own difficulties.

6. Attitudes in human relationships: One may use a social situation or a human

---

[2]These qualities are described in greater detail in: Smith, Philip G., "The Role of Philosophy in the Preparation of School Administrators." Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The Ohio State University. 1954.

relationship in a variety of ways (4). Does this individual use it for personal need gratification in an unshared way? Does he use it to express hostility, or affection, or some other kind of emotion? What does he expect from other persons in the relationship?

7. Emotional resilience: How much strain can he take? Has he the emotional resilience to endure hostility, confusion, and frustration without becoming ineffective?

8. Versatility: Is he able to vary his emotional responses according to the situation in which he finds himself? Is he emotionally "mobile"?

Along with particulars of this sort, the personal needs felt by an individual can be examined for their appropriateness for the school administrator's role, inasmuch as a person does behave according to his individual set of needs. If they be strong needs or frequently unsatisfied ones, he will tend to direct the situation in which he finds himself so that these personal needs are satisfied.

The Behavior of the Administrator

The administrator carries on many kinds of behavior in his professional capacity. Two of these are important in this study: (A) his behavior with himself, including planning and problem-solving behavior, and (B) his behavior with his teachers and other school personnel. (His relations with people in general were not considered in this study.)

A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

Although this area is allied to the qualities of the administrator previously discussed, it is useful to examine his planning and problem-solving behavior as it results from the combination of his qualities and the situation in which he finds himself. When he is faced with a problem in his school, how does the administrator go about solving the problem or planning for its solution?

1. Does he consider the whole field of relevant facts, or does he consider only one or two of the immediately pressing situational events?

2. Has he an awareness of what lies behind the specific problem with which he is dealing, or does he consider it a separate entity?

3. Does he respond to the problem primarily in terms of his own feeling and emotions and needs, or is he able to respond in terms of the situation which has developed?

4. Does he utilize his professional knowledge and skills in working on the problem, or does he ignore these in the press of the immediate situation?

5. How clear is he about the nature of the problem itself and its component parts?

6. To what degree is he able and willing to project several possible solutions for consideration instead of jumping at a single solution?

7. How willing is he to test his solutions, if possible, before deciding upon a final course?

8. Does he consider only the physical situation involved in the problem, or does he also include the processes which are involved in the development of the problem itself and

plan for these processes and the people involved in them?

Questions such as these must be examined if we are to make a meaningful transition from the basic abilities and qualities of the administrator to the way he actually performs in working with his faculty and other related groups. For example, it may be most important to know, before observing an administrator in his faculty meeting, what kind of planning he did before the meeting. It would seem ill advised to criticize a particular administrator because of his performance in a faculty meeting if it carried out very effectively the kinds of things he had planned for. The more important job, if changes were desired, would be to help him to find different methods of planning and to become aware of different goals and processes as relevant to his planning. This would be required before change could occur in his behavior in the faculty meeting.

B. Behavior with the Faculty

The behavior which the administrator exhibits in his working relationships seems to have the possibility of two different kinds of effects. The first of these is the kind of working atmosphere which he creates for his staff (36). The second is the kinds of procedures and processes for work which he sets up for his staff, and the effects these may have on the staff's productivity.

1. The atmosphere in the staff: Atmosphere is the kind of emotional climate which surrounds the group operation. Inasmuch as the administrator has an important position in the school, he is very likely to have a predominant effect on the emotional environment in which the teachers work. For example, if the administrator exhibits friendly and accepting behavior and is warm and considerate toward others, he is likely to create an atmosphere in which teachers will be more friendly, accepting, and considerate toward each other as well as toward the administrator. Behaviors of this "positive" sort may also increase the feeling of security which the teachers have on the job.

Conversely, it seems even more likely that if the administrator is hostile toward his staff, is defensive about his own behavior or the school operations, is arbitrary or aggressive, he will increase the insecurity of his staff members and produce hostility and defensiveness among the teachers in their working relationships. In certain cases, of course, some teachers will react to such an atmosphere by withdrawing, becoming isolated in their own classroom activities, as a means of protecting themselves. It may often be that the atmosphere has more effect on the school operation than the specific activities which are developed.

2. Procedures and processes used by the administrator: As a result of his planning, the administrator will institute certain procedures in the normal day-to-day operations as a basis for staff work. The kinds of procedures he utilizes also affect the kinds of reactions the teachers have. For example, if the administrator establishes a pattern of one-to-one communication with his teachers, there is likely to be ineffectual or destructive communication among the teachers. If the administrator himself makes the decisions

about school problems, he automatically takes from the teachers opportunities to partic-
ipate in decision-making. Similarly, if he does the planning for the school, inevitably
there will be a reduction in the amount of planning the staff can do. Perhaps even more
important in terms of the morale of the teachers is the problem of evaluation. If the
administrator is the principal source of evaluation of what goes on in the school, he will
rob the teachers of many opportunities to make co-operative evaluations. This means that
he sets himself up willy-nilly as determiner of what is "good." In this situation the
teachers must try to meet his demands for what is good rather than develop for themselves
a common standard of what is effective for the school.

The particulars discussed in the preceding paragraphs suggest possible ways of ex-
amining the administrator's behavior in order to make clear the relationships between
what he is like and what he does.

Effects on the Teachers

We pointed out earlier that the behavior of the administrator is important because it
affects the teachers in their working activities. A wide variety of possible effects upon
the teachers could be examined. For example, ineffective planning by the administrator,
resulting in lack of supplies, would create difficulties for the teachers. Similarly, the
failure of the administrator to get needed information to his teachers would make it dif-
ficult for them to make necessary decisions. If the administrator had not worked with the
teachers in clarifying their respective roles, the individual teacher would have difficulty
deciding what he was supposed to do or not to do in a given situation.

A second area affecting productivity is teachers' morale. It seems logical that, re-
gardless of the teacher's abilities and skills, he will be a better teacher than he would
be otherwise if his morale is high. This is a basic assumption which was used in gather-
ing the morale data in this study. Since it is frequently not feasible, as in this case,
to use an evaluation of the actual learning which students are doing in the classroom as
the principal criterion for administrative behavior, it seemed legitimate to use the
intermediate variable of teacher morale as a standard for judging administrative effec-
tiveness.

For the purposes of this study, morale was defined in the following way:[3]

1. Sense of goal, knowing where you want to go.

2. Sense of progress, feeling you are getting somewhere.

3. Sense of contribution, feeling you, and others, can "do something about it."

4. Sense of togetherness, feeling you are "in it" with others.

---

[3]These items were adapted from "Five Factors in Morale" in Watson, Goodwin (ed.)
Civilian Morale. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, (for the Society for the Psycho-
logical Study of Social Issues, 1942), pp. 30-47.

These items were used as check points in an attempt to evaluate the morale of teachers as they worked on the job.

Major Hypotheses of the Study

The kinds of relationships which might exist between these various factors are indicated by the following outline, which sketches the major hypotheses and gives specific examples at the level at which the individual variables were measured.

A. The qualities of the administrator affect his planning and problem-solving behavior.

    1. The basic abilities and understandings (intellectual ability, information, professional knowledge, etc.) which the administrator has affect his planning ability.

    2. The intellectual processes of the administrator affect the kind of planning he does.

    3. The motivational-emotional make-up of the administrator affects his planning behavior.

        a. The personal needs of the administrator affect his perception of the situation.
        b. His perception of the situation affects his diagnosis.
        c. His diagnosis affects his planning.

B. The qualities of the administrator affect the procedures and processes he uses with the staff and the atmosphere he creates for the staff.

    1. The motivational-emotional condition of the administrator affects the emotional overtones of his behavior (atmosphere).

    2. Basic understandings and skills of the administrator affect the procedures that he uses.

C. The administrator's planning and problem-solving behavior affects the procedures and processes he uses with the staff.

D. The procedures and processes the administrator uses and the atmosphere he creates affect the teachers' behavior and their reactions.

    1. The procedures and processes the administrator uses affect the behavior of the staff and their reactions.

        a. To the extent the administrator restricts or ignores communication, there will be reduced or limited communication among the staff about school problems.
        b. To the extent the administrator personally controls the situation, the teachers will be less satisfied with the procedures used.
        c. The administrator's participation in professional activities with his staff affects their reaction to these activities.

    2. The atmosphere created by the administrator affects the attitudes and emotional reactions of the teachers.

        a. Hostility, defensiveness, arbitrariness, and aggressiveness on the part of the administrator will create similar or complementary behaviors and attitudes among the staff members.
        b. Friendliness, acceptance, and consideration on the part of the administrator will create similar or complementary behaviors among the staff.

    3. The atmosphere present and the procedures used in the school affect the morale of the teachers.

        a. Given an atmosphere defined as mutually accepting:
            (1) As the teachers communicate about common problems, they will develop a greater sense of togetherness.

(2) As teachers make decisions together about their own welfare, they will gain a greater sense of direction.

(3) As teachers plan together for action, they will gain a greater sense of contribution.

(4) As teachers evaluate together, they will gain a greater sense of progress toward their goals.

b. Given an atmosphere defined as mutually hostile:

(1) As teachers communicate about common problems, they will develop greater feelings of isolation and insecurity.

(2) As teachers attempt to make decisions together about their own welfare, they will suffer a greater sense of confusion and resentment.

(3) As teachers attempt unsuccessfully to plan for action together, they will decide that the situation is hopeless.

(4) As teachers attempt to evaluate together, they will be judgmental and destructive in their evaluations.

The following chart illustrates the pattern of relationships among the hypotheses:

Design of Study
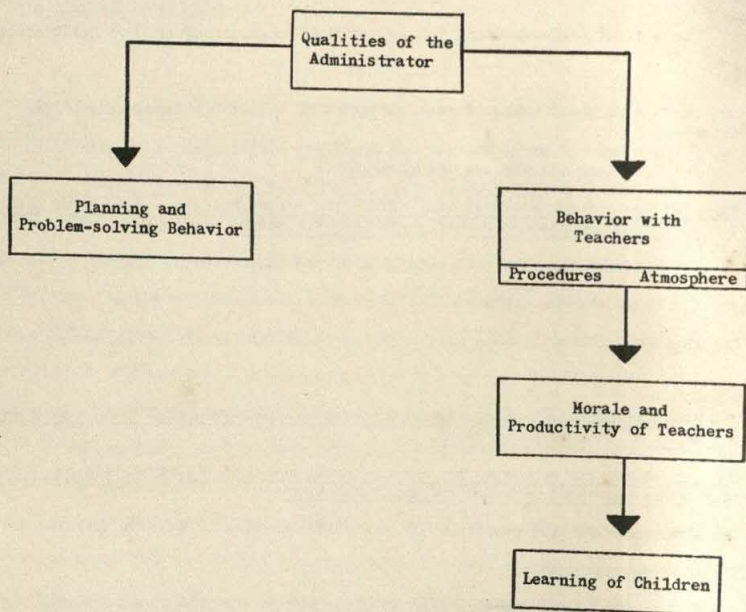
Summary

In this chapter we have attempted to present an analysis of school administration to serve as a framework for the particular study to be reported here.

The basic assumption of this analysis has been that the administrator in a particular school has some significant effect upon the kinds of learnings which the students secure in their school experience. It has been suggested that the nature of this relationship may go through several steps: (a) the qualities of the administrator affect his planning and problem-solving ability; (b) the qualities of the administrator affect the atmosphere which he creates with his faculty; (c) the administrator's planning and

problem-solving ability affects the kinds of behaviors which he exhibits with his faculty; (d) the procedures and processes which the administrator sets up, and the atmosphere he creates, affect the morale of the teachers and their effectiveness.

In the following chapter we will describe the methodology and setting of one study which attempted to test some of the hypotheses presented in this analysis.

CHAPTER III
PROCEDURES IN THE STUDY

In order to test the ideas suggested in the previous chapter, it was necessary to move from the theoretical framework toward the establishment of a research plan and the selection and development of research measures. Such data as were desired had to be secured in some situation where school administrators were at work. We turn first to a brief description of the setting in which the study was carried out. Let us remember, however, that the report which is made here does not deal primarily with a particular school system; the central concern is with the particular ideas about school administration which are verified by these data or are in need of modification.

Setting of the Study

In a large industrial city in Ohio, the elementary schools changed the plan of operation in their curriculum-study activities from a city-wide program to a building-unit program. Instead of having workshops and meetings at the central office to which teachers came according to their interests, the single building, with its staff and principal, now became the unit for work in curriculum development.

Each of the almost fifty elementary schools decided upon a type of activity to be undertaken. While the decision-making process was carried on in different ways in the various schools, the central office staff suggested these criteria for the activity to be selected: (1) something of concern to teachers, (2) something they can take action about, (3) something which is closely related to actual classroom work. In some cases a school staff worked on a single problem while in others the staff divided into committees to work on several different topics.

While not central to the purposes of this study, the variety of topics chosen provides an interesting background. Some schools worked on the improvement of the teaching of particular subject-matter, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, music, spelling, science, or the social studies. The state's sesquicentennial provided a focus for study in a few schools. Others worked on broader problems such as the improvement of citizenship and the development of good social relationships among students.

Procedures and processes with which every school staff member deals were chosen in a large number of schools. Illustrative of these topics are: teacher-pupil planning, providing for individual differences; grouping students within a particular room; problems of the slow learner and the exceptional child; emotional problems; guidance; discipline; classroom control; development of good work habits; and mental hygiene.

School-community relationships involving topics like public relations, contacts between teachers and parents, the use of community resources, and problems relating to

reporting to parents received emphasis in another group of schools. Still others worked
on the development of a school philosophy, read and discussed professional literature,
worked on programs to aid in the orientation of new teachers, discussed the use of
special teachers, dealt with such immediate problems within the schools as those arising
from a noon-hour program, or discussed questions related to the scheduling and timing of
particular school activities.

This school system, through its assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum and
instruction, requested the School-Community Development Study at The Ohio State University
to do a diagnostic study of these new curriculum activities. A need was expressed to know
more about what went on in curriculum work in their own city under the new arrangements,
so that they could make better decisions in the future for curriculum-improvement activ-
ities.

With this interest at hand, an agreement was made with the school system for the
School-Community Development Study to secure research data related to the curriculum-
development program in the school units for two purposes: (1) to supply the elementary-
school principals and related persons in the school system with data for their use in
developing future plans for curriculum work and (2) to contribute to the understanding of
administrative processes and to the role of the educational administrator. Plans for
gathering data were made accordingly.

At the end of the school year in which the research was carried on, one brief report
containing some of the early findings was distributed to all of the teachers and principals
who had participated in the study. The following fall, a day-and-a-half conference was
held with the principals' group. Findings which seemed to be related to their future
curriculum work were reported. Later in the year, a final written report was presented
which reviewed findings of special interest to the school system.

This monograph is not a description of the curriculum activities nor a report for
action use in that city. Data are presented here to help develop a better understanding
of the role of the administrator and of administrative processes.

General Design of the Study

Although the study was primarily a descriptive one, the fact that there were almost
fifty elementary schools from which data could be secured permitted comparisons to be made
among different schools. This was the principal analytic procedure used.

It was possible to secure data at two different times: (1) at the middle of the
school year, when most of the curriculum activities were well under way and (2) at the end
of the school year, when the activities were drawing to a close. This made it possible to
obtain certain data regarding changes which had taken place in the schools during the four-
month period.

Plans were made for measurement in six areas: (1) background information,

(2) personality and attitude, (3) intellectual functioning, (4) planning and problem-solving behavior, (5) behavior with the teachers, and (6) teachers' morale and reactions to the administrator's behavior and to the curriculum activities. The first three of these provided information about the qualities of the administrator, the next two about his behavior, and the last about the effects upon teachers of his qualities and his behavior.

The instruments planned for each of these areas will be described in greater detail. First, let us examine the general plans for securing data.

Gathering Data

The group from which data were sought consisted of approximately fifty elementary-school principals and the teachers in their schools. The entire population of elementary schools in the city was included. This made it necessary to secure data from almost a thousand teachers and fifty principals, at two different times, with a minimum of disturbance to the everyday routines of the schools and with a maximum use of research personnel. It was decided to gather these data in two ways. It seemed important that the data from the principals be accumulated in personal interviews. It seemed possible to get data from the teachers only through some form of printed questionnaire.

In February five interviewers[1] were assigned for one week to this project. During that time they were scheduled for a half-day for interview and visiting time with each principal. They also met with the faculty of each school, either before school in the morning, at lunch time, or immediately after school. The period of time allowed for interviewing each principal averaged an hour to an hour and a half. While some teachers took up to an hour to complete the questionnaire, a majority of them finished within a half-hour.

At the end of the year a somewhat abbreviated schedule was followed. Inasmuch as the interview form at that time was shorter and principals were more familiar with the project, it seemed possible to schedule three, rather than two, interviews a day per interviewer. Thus, one interviewer met with two principals during the morning hours and one in the afternoon, and then with the teachers' groups before school, at noon, or after school. With this schedule it was possible to complete the interviewing and data-gathering within four days. Copies of the interview forms, questionnaires, and instructions are included in Appendix B.

Measuring Instruments Used

The measuring instruments which were used for various purposes in this study and the kinds of questions to which they were applied are described in detail here together with a rationale of their place in the study as a whole.

---

[1]Several interviewers were used in the project. These were advanced graduate students in the field of education, except for one person drawn from educational sociology. Three of them were research assistants in the School-Community Development Study. A two-hour training session was held prior to each interview series which consisted primarily of a detailed analysis of the interview schedule to be used (see Appendix B).

I - A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

Background information was secured for this group of principals as part of a larger study of the backgrounds and professional preparation of school administrators in Ohio during the spring of 1952. Those few principals who had not previously supplied that information were asked to supply it as of that time. Along with some of the usual census-type questions such as those concerning age, marital status, etc., questions were asked about their academic degrees, certification, salaries, undergraduate and graduate majors and minors, and the amount of graduate work in administration they had completed. Information concerning membership in professional and community organizations was also requested. For the record of their professional experience, they were asked to give the chronological order in which they had held various positions and the number of years they had held each one. A specific listing of the positions was not requested.[2]

Four items of information from the background data were used in this study: sex, age, years of administrative experience, and recency of graduate study. Because there were both men and women principals in the group, there was an opportunity to make comparisons on the basis of sex.

Two other variables, age and years of experience, were examined to discover whether the older, more experienced principal is likely to be more effective than the younger, less experienced one. These variables were studied separately, but they are, of course, related.

The fourth variable was the recency of graduate study. Two categories were used: (1) those principals who had taken one or more graduate courses or workshops within the last five years and (2) those who had not. This variable was used as a measure of professional interest and concern with professional growth.

I - B. Intellectual Processes

Although there seemed to be a possibility that the Sentence Completion Test and the Case Analysis Test described later, together with the personality test, would give some information related to the measurement of the intellectual processes of the principals, these tests did not appear to be adequate for the purpose. In order to secure a judgment about the three qualities subsumed under intellectual processes, the interviewers made an estimate of these qualities from the interview. The definitions that were used as a basis for this estimate are as follows:[3]

1. Comprehension

   a. [The person] sees particulars in relation to a large field--he sees "the big picture." This is the ability to resist "the press of particulars." By habit, or when necessary by .... conscious effort, he strives to enlarge the field of his perceptions and to see the [wider] implications of his drives and concerns.

---

[2]The study of the background and professional preparation of school administrators in Ohio is being prepared separately by William F. Maize, under the title, "The Ohio School Administrator."

[3]Smith, Philip G., op. cit.

b. He relates his thinking about immediate problems to more distant or long-range goals. Involved here is a kind of intellectual and emotional stamina marshaled against "the press of the immediate" in order to make decisions in terms of relatively [remote] and stable objectives.

c. He has a tolerance for theoretical considerations. By resisting "the press of the particular and the immediate," he is able to extend his concerns to "the possible" and [to depart from] the level of "the actual."

d. He has the power to generalize. By resisting "the press of the actual," he is free to create explanations which permit the extension of his understanding to an ever-increasing number of heretofore unrelated phenomena.

2. Penetration

a. He tends to question what is generally taken for granted or thought to be self-evident. By resisting "the press of the obvious" he calls into question the very things others [accept], and thus increases his chance to move beyond the limits of prejudice, bias, and stereotypes.

b. He formulates the fundamental ideas, questions, problems, and assumptions that, if grasped, will help resolve the situation. Freed from the tyranny of the obvious, he is enabled to consider basic ideas which may serve as keys to the solution of a wide range of problems.

c. He demonstrates a keen sensitivity [to] implications and relevance. Having penetrated to the fundamentals of the situation, he "plays" with ideas and "teases out" their implications.

d. He predicts by means of an abductive-deductive process rather than by a simple inductive process. Having moved creatively beneath the surface of observed phenomena, he makes tentative predictions based on the [implied] meanings of his abductions.

3. Flexibility

a. He demonstrates a lack of "psychological set" in attacking problems. He resists the inertia of the accustomed or routine ways of thinking and continually increases his repertoire of intellectual procedures.

b. He has a tolerance for tentativeness and suspended judgment, but is willing to take action in an ambiguous situation. Being free to deal with the unusual and having gained confidence in this process, he finds security in "the dealing" itself, not alone in the resulting products.

c. He is able to evaluate an idea without being emotionally tied to its source, and he is eager to "feed" on the ideas of others. Feeling secure without the sanction of persons or institutions, he avoids the genetic fallacy (even when he respects the source), and he welcomes a critical cross-fertilization of ideas.

d. He sees issues as many-sided rather than two-sided, and he develops relatively large numbers of alternate hypotheses, explanations, viewpoints, etc. He does not confuse contraries with contradictions, and he increases his security by extending his understanding of the probable possibilities.

I - C. Motivational-Emotional Processes and Conditions

1. Attitude measurement: The administrator's attitudes which were considered important in this study are those that would be likely to affect his relationships with the school staff. To get some measure of these, a paper-and-pencil test called the Sentiments Inventory was used. This test, together with a personality test, a sentence-completion test, and a case-analysis test, was given to the principals at the beginning of the project.[4]

The Sentiments Inventory (see Appendix B, p. 159) consists of 76 statements concerning which the respondent is to indicate his agreement or disagreement on a five-point scale. Many of the items which comprise this test have been used over an extensive period with a variety of groups. Item analyses have been done on most of the items. The type of statement used was developed from the original Ideology Test used at the National

----

[4]Throughout the document, references will be made to the appropriate tables, schedules, and descriptive sections by parenthetical notes.

Training Laboratory in Group Development in 1947.[5] Very few of the items remain as they were originally used in that inventory.

The five scores which are contained in this form of the test are:

A Score: A low score suggests dependence on experts, desire for authoritative statements, and hesitancy to accept group or personal thinking as valid.

T Score: A high score suggests a perception of the teacher as a co-participant with the students in a learning situation; students are expected to assume responsibility for the activities and behavior in class. Problems of operation and planning are shared by the class, which has responsibility for making and carrying out decisions.

G Score: A high score suggests a belief in democratic group procedures, in the effectiveness of group decision, and in the necessity of accepting all members of the group as co-participants.

F Score: A low score suggests an "anti-democratic" personality. (Twenty items from Levinson's[6] F-Scale comprise this scale.)

C Score: A high score suggests a conception of the school as an institution interrelated with the community, of the school facilities as being available for use by community members, and of the community as furnishing a useful laboratory for school learning activities.

The items which were scored for the C Score were new to this particular form of the test. After preliminary examination, only data from the A-Scale and the F-Scale were developed.

The second test, regarded for these purposes as an attitude test, was a 17-item sentence completion test (see Appendix B, p. 159), which had been built as one measuring device for the study of school administration. These 17 items are incomplete sentences related to school situations and administrator-teacher relations. Satisfactory scoring methods were not developed in the course of this study, and therefore these data were not usable.

2. Personality measurement: Along with the other tests which were given to the administrative personnel who participated in this investigation, the Runner Personality Analysis Test (Tenth Revision) was used.[7] This was a paper-and-pencil test of approximately three hundred items which was scorable on twenty-three variables. The test was interpreted from a profile, with consideration given to the general pattern of the profile, its typology, and its deviations from the "normal pattern" for that type. Clinical interpretations in some detail were made from this test.

No specific hypotheses were developed in advance regarding what particular variables of personality would be related to particular aspects of administrative behavior or teacher

---

[5]See Report of the First National Training Laboratory in Group Development, Division of Adult Education Services, NEA, 1947. An earlier form of the present inventory was used and reported in Jenkins, David H., An Analysis of the Valence of the Group and Some Relationships to Individual Change, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, unpublished doctoral dissertation, 1952.

[6]T. W. Adorno et al., The Authoritarian Personality (New York: Harper and Bros., 1950).

[7]Developed by Runner Associates, Mt. Vernon Place, Golden, Colorado, or 214 Hutchinson Ave., Iowa City, Iowa.

reaction. The authors of this test have found through extensive experience that a particular score on a single variable is almost totally meaningless for understanding of the personality as a whole. The interpretation develops from the position of a variable in relation to the entire profile. For these reasons, no analyses have been made relating any behavioral variable and a single personality score. Rather, the principals were separated into groups, based upon several of the variables used in this study, and the personality profiles of the principals in each group were then examined for similarities and differences. The personality findings presented are summary statements which were developed by the authors of the test from a critical examination of all the profiles of the individuals in the various categories.

II - A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

1. Case Analysis Test: The Case Analysis Test (see Appendix B, p. 157) consists of four brief descriptions of situations, each followed by three or four questions. These ask for a report of specific behaviors ("Specifically, what would you be likely to say to Miss Newton?") and for analysis of basic problems ("What important issues might underlie the situation?").

Two procedures were used in attempting to score the Case Analysis Test. The first of these, a study of approach, was concerned with the general set taken to the case. Two categories were used under this method:

a. Relations-building: This approach dealt primarily with the need to get the appropriate persons together to work out the problem. For example, in Case 1 this might mean setting up a meeting between Miss Jones and Miss Newton so that they could work further on the problem. It might also involve the development of a more satisfactory relationship between the principal and teachers, or between any one of them and the students.

b. Administration-centered: In this approach the administrator makes decisions and takes whatever action he feels necessary. The case is handled as a problem "to be gotten off his desk." He tends to disregard any human-relations aspects and probably ignores the need to get any further information. He makes his judgment about what is correct and takes action.

Each of the four cases analyzed by each principal was examined to determine whether it fell into one of these two approaches. Seventeen principals were finally categorized as giving primarily relations-building responses, and twelve as giving primarily administration-centered responses.

The second method of scoring these responses was to give an over-all score. A score of "A" was assigned if the total set of responses seemed reasonably adequate and analytical for the case. The score of "B" was assigned if there seemed to be some reasonable consideration of the relevant factors but a weak response. A score of "C" was assigned if the response seemed superficial, stereotyped, judgmental, or trite. The rater found few responses to the cases which he could readily categorize as adequate. Close inspection was necessary to determine whether some responses could be considered reasonably satisfactory.

On the basis of his scoring of this test, the senior author placed each of the principals in one of three categories: high, medium, or low. The tests were then independently

examined by the second author and assigned to similar categories. In 65 per cent of the cases there was agreement about the assignment; in an additional 32.5 per cent there was a difference of only one category. Only one case was assigned to the high category by one rater and to the low category by another. This extent of agreement was deemed satisfactory enough to warrent using the tabulations which had been made on the basis of the original groupings.

2. Interview data: Several questions relating to his planning behavior formed part of the first interview with the principal. The first of these was Question 2, Schedule II, A: "How did you go about making a selection of the particular problems to work on this year?" The interviewer noted whether the principal used the plural pronoun "we," meaning the entire staff, during the interview, or the first person singular as a possible clue to self-centeredness in his planning activities.

The next question involving the selection of problems was, "Who made the decision?" If the principal indicated that the teachers made the decision, then he was asked if there were any teachers who were in disagreement with the selection. If he answered affirmatively, he was asked to report what they did in the matter so that the interviewer might discover whether he was aware of subgroups in his school or of adverse reactions among his teachers. If he indicated that he made the decision, he was asked how the teachers felt about the problem that was selected, to see whether he was aware of any disagreements or hostilities on their part.

Another approach to his planning behavior was provided by Item 4a in this same schedule, which asked what he hoped to accomplish in the curriculum-study activities for that year. The interviewer noted whether the principal began by describing his own personal goals or the goals of the faculty. We were interested in knowing, first, whether he had any professional goals as a school administrator separate from those which were held in common by all the teachers. We assumed that in his role as administrator he would have to separate his goals from those which might be shared as action goals by the entire staff.

When the principal did not voluntarily state the goals which he himself had in view, he was asked about them directly. If the interviewer believed that some of the goals named were related to process or development, that opinion became a part of the interview record. When the administrator had finished describing his goals, the interviewer rated him on the clarity of his statement concerning them--whether he was confused and vague or clear and explicit.

In a similar fashion the principal was asked to report what goals he thought the teachers were hoping to reach as the result of their participation in the curriculum activities. This was an attempt to get some inkling of how well he had examined the field preliminary to his planning. Here again he was checked to determine the process goals held by the teachers, as well as clarity of his general statements about goals.

The interviewer next asked the principal Question 5, Schedule II, A: "After the study

problems were selected, what did you see as the problems you faced in getting the curriculum study under way?" The purpose here was to discover the planning the principal had done for next steps in the curriculum study. From his answer we hoped to learn whether he saw any direct implications for his own action growing out of the selection of the study problem. It was assumed that, as an administrator, he would face demands for action to augment the selection of the problems so that they could be best developed. This question also attempted to determine whether he saw himself as involved in immediate, specific, detailed problems or whether he thought the problems which were selected by the staff required long-term planning on his part. Similarly, it was noted whether he recognized that the specific activity of problem selection had implications for the long-term development of the staff itself.

As another check on his understanding of the situation in his school, the administrator was asked to indicate on a separate rating sheet his estimate of how the teachers in his school, on the average, would rate their morale at that time. It was assumed that an administrator who was aware of his faculty's feelings would be better able to report them accurately than would one who had not taken his faculty into account in planning. We believed that it was extremely important for an administrator to consider the faculty's feelings when he planned his work with them.

During the second interview at the end of the year, additional material was gathered concerning the administrator's problem-solving and planning behavior. For example, Questions 2 and 3 (Schedule IV, A.) asked the principal what he believed had been accomplished by the curriculum study and what he thought the teachers had gained from their participation.

Question 4a on this same form was, "As you look back over the year's curriculum-study activities, what, if anything, do you wish you had done differently?" This question was designed to ascertain how well the administrator might have done "post-planning"; that is, how well he had evaluated the year's experience and what projections he might be making for the next year. The interviewer was asked to push for details here about what the administrator wished he had done differently and why, and also to probe for whatever consideration he had given to future work in the school.

Unfortunately it was impossible to make use of the interview data for measuring planning and problem-solving behavior. Despite the various attempts in the interviews, the large majority of the principals gave such meager responses to these questions that the material was insufficient in quantity, and range, to establish any analytical categories.

II - B. Behavior with the Teachers

1. Atmosphere created by the administrator: We found it impossible to get any direct rating of the qualities having to do with the atmosphere created by the administrator from the teachers themselves or by observing the principal in his working contacts with his teachers. The nearest (although admittedly weak) approximation was a set of ratings

made by the interviewer as a result of the interview and his general observations at the

school (Schedule II, C.). He rated these aspects of the principal's relations with the

teachers:

      a. Atmosphere: scaled from "hostile, defensive," to "warm, friendly."
This was a general rating of the emotional atmosphere the administrator seemed
to create in the school.

      b. Focus of effort: scaled from "task or product" to "teacher growth."
To what does the principal give his primary attention? Does he tend to be
"program-centered" or is he "people-centered," concerned with teacher growth
and development?

      c. Focus of field: scaled from "self-centered" to "not self-centered."
What does he worry about first in an ambiguous field? Is he likely to be con-
cerned with himself first, or is he concerned more with his faculty?

      d. Use of power: scaled from "controls situation" to "releases situation."
Where does the administrator throw his influence? Does he attempt to maintain
control of the situation and limit the behavior of his teachers, or does he
attempt to work in the situation so that his teachers are increasingly free to be
creative in their own right and to use their resources productively?

In order that the various rankings which were assigned by the interviewers might lend

themselves better to comparison, each interviewer was asked, after his set of interviews

had been completed, to rank the eight or ten principals he had interviewed on each of

these scales. This gave a roughly comparative scale.

In the first teacher questionnaire, an attempt was made to measure atmosphere indi-

rectly by asking three questions related to the communication pattern in the school. The

first question had to do with the frequency with which the teacher communicated with other

teachers concerning curriculum problems. The scale ran from "infrequently" to "every

day." The second question measured the breadth of this communication, whether the teacher

talked about curriculum problems with only one or two other teachers or with anyone he met

in the building. In the third question of this set, the teacher was asked how easy he

found it to talk with the principal about his own ideas and suggestions relating to the

school. Although there are other factors which would affect answers to this question, it

seemed that one of the primary determinants would be the nature of the atmosphere which

the principal created for his staff. The data from these questions regarding communica-

tion are reported in a separate section.

    2. Procedures and processes used in the school: The kind of organizational structure

which the administrator establishes in the school is a result of administrative behavior

which affects teachers directly. The problem of procedures used in the school was

approached from several directions.

      a. Organizational patterns: Two different attempts were made to get some
conception of the organization used by the various schools in their curriculum
activities. At the time of the first interview, the principal was asked how the
faculty was organized, and he was pressed to describe whether they worked in small
groups or large groups, the range in size of groups, and the kinds of meetings
which were held. The responses were not sufficiently comparable to make it pos-
sible at the completion of these interviews to assign schools with assurance to
various categories of structure. A second check on the organizational structure
was needed.

      Therefore, in the second interview the principal was asked more specific
questions about whether his staff worked as a total group or in small groups or
both, the use of resource persons, the methods of reporting the various activ-
ities, and the presence or absence of a co-ordinating or planning committee. The
interviewer explored these questions until he had a fairly consistent and accurate

picture of the structural pattern. According to these materials, most schools
fell into one of four categories:

    S: Small work groups only (5 schools)
   ST: Small work groups with either some total staff work or a co-
         ordinating committee (8 schools)
  STC: Small work groups with both total staff work and a co-
         ordinating committee (19 schools)
    T: Total staff work only (7 schools)

The remaining schools had patterns of work which did not fit in this classifi-
cation.

In the schools using small-group activity, two different kinds of groups
were developed. Twenty-six schools had teachers working in small groups ac-
cording to the grade-level which they taught. Eight other schools, however,
had teachers working in small groups according to some interest which they had
in common. These two approaches raise this question: Do teachers work better
together who instruct students of the same grade-age level or who are concerned
with a problem of common interest affecting students at different stages of
development?

b. Participation of the principal: Different patterns were found among the
schools with respect to the amount and nature of the principal's participation in
the curriculum-study activities. The extent of participation divided the prin-
cipals roughly into three types:

  • The principal did not consider himself a member of the curriculum-
    study groups (13 schools).
  • The principal considered himself a member of the total staff activity
    but not a participant in any of the existing small groups (13 schools).
  • The principal considered himself a member of both the total staff and
    one or more small groups (9 schools).

It should be recalled that the assignment of principals to these categories was
based upon their statements concerning participation in the curriculum activities.
It seemed likely that the principal's activity in curriculum work would tend to re-
flect his attitudes and beliefs about his relation with teachers.

c. Decision-making in selecting the curriculum-study problems: A third way in
which the principal's behavior affected procedures was by the method he established
for making decisions in the selection of curriculum-study problems. Decision-
making plays a crucial role in the administrative functions of the school. At the
time of the contacts with the principals and teachers in February, both groups were
asked to indicate who they believed made the decisions regarding the selection of
problems for study. This was asked as a free question in the interview with the
principal, one of four responses being checked by the interviewer. A four-choice
item was given to the teachers as a part of their questionnaire. The choices
offered them were as follows:

    _____ the principal
    _____ the principal and a select group of teachers
    _____ the teachers themselves
    _____ (other)

A specific fourth response purposely omitted from the teacher questionnaire was
"principal and teachers together." Although this would seem to be the desirable
approach in most cases, a response so framed might have made it far too easy for the
teachers to respond glibly, even at the expense of strict honesty. If teachers were
encouraged to write in responses, it was thought, they would be more likely to
analyze what took place and report it as it appeared to them. If they believed,
after careful consideration, that it was really the principal and teachers together
who made the choices, we were of the opinion that they would answer accordingly. In
some schools this did become the predominant method of response.

Replies to the question about participation in decision-making were obtained
from the principal and the teachers in each school. Inasmuch as the teachers were
responding individually and their responses were necessarily to some degree sub-
jective, it is not surprising that in many cases there was disagreement about the
process used. Nor did the principal's response always agree with that of the
majority of his teachers. On the basis of these data it was possible to categorize
most schools in one of the six following groups:

    T: Decision made by teachers or teacher committee (14 schools)
  PST: Decision made by principal and a small group of teachers
       (5 schools)
    P: The majority of teachers said the decision was made by the
       principal; principal said the decision was made either by
       teachers or by principal and teachers together (7 schools)
    S: Teachers' opinions spread on how decision was made; principal
       said the decision was made either by teachers or by principal
       and teachers together (8 schools)
    D: Teachers' opinions divided: the decision made by teachers or by
       principal and select group of teachers. The principal said the
       decision was made by teachers or by teachers and principal
       (7 schools)

d. Perception of administrative role: An attempt was made to secure further information about the procedures the principal used by ascertaining his perception of his own duties in curriculum development. One of the questions asked toward the close of the first interview was, "Generally speaking, as you see it, what really are the main jobs of an elementary principal in curriculum development in his school?" His free responses to this question were noted by the interviewer. Unfortunately, the responses were too meager and inadequate to categorize, and they are not reported in this study.

e. Administrative practices of principals: At the time the first question-naires were distributed to teachers in February, they were asked a general question about the ways in which their principal could be of more help to them in furthering curriculum development. Their free responses to this question suggested some areas in which there might be so-called "administrative weaknesses" in working with teachers.

Because this material seemed rather ambiguous, a second check was made in May. A separate sheet containing five scales was given to the teachers for anonymous responses. The scales are as follows:

10. How helpful is the principal's office in getting needed materials and supplies for you?

Does not give supply problems the attention I would like	Handles regular supply routines satisfactorily	Makes special efforts to get materials I need

11. How well are you kept informed about the things which affect your work and your school?

Often not notified of information affecting my work	Usually notified of information directly affecting my work	Kept up-to-date on all information related to my work and the school

12. When considering problems in the school, how clearly and consistently do you believe the respective responsibilities of the teachers and the principal have been defined?

Confused, never sure when I should take the initiative	Usually clear, but get principal's OK before taking initiative	Clear, feel free to take initiative in definite areas

13. How frequently do you find yourself being given encouragement and approval by the principal?

Rarely get any encouragement or approval	Get encouragement and approval occasionally	Get encouragement and approval frequently

14. Do you find it easy to talk with the principal about your ideas and suggestions for the school?

Difficult, hard to find an opportunity	Rather easy, if I have a very good idea	Easy for me at any time

These five items tapped different elements of the administrator's behavior with his teachers. Item 10 dealt directly with the administrator's function of getting supplies for his teachers. Communication with teachers about things which affected them was included in Item 11. Because it is inevitable that confusions will arise whenever roles and responsibilities are not clearly defined, Item 12 was included to get the teachers' perceptions of the clarity with which roles in the school had been defined.

Item 13 was included to get information concerning the frequency with which the principal was a source of reward for the teacher. Because of the principal's position of power and influence in the school, it seemed likely that he would be a person from whom reward would be most desired. If reward and approval were with-held, it would be difficult for the teachers to determine what kinds of behavior were desired from them by the principal. To be told merely what not to do is insufficient.

The last item regarding teachers' ease of communication with the principal was identical with a scale used in February. It was included primarily to discover whether there were any changes between February and May in communication with the principal in particular schools.

These descriptions or measures of the procedures and processes used by the administrator show what the teachers saw him doing. If he himself had been asked certain of the same questions about the teachers, his responses might have been quite different. For example, the administrator may believe that he is doing all he can to get materials and supplies for his teachers, but, the teachers may think that he is not doing what he should in the matter. Similarly, the principal may be making definite efforts to get important information to the teachers, and again the teachers may believe that he either is withholding information or is

careless in conveying it to them. Differences of opinion in these two cases might suggest the necessity for exploring the definitions each group has, on the one hand, about what materials are needed, and, on the other hand, about what information is relevant for the teachers. In the latter case, clarification would be needed among the teachers themselves about what information is important to them and the meaning it has for them. Similar analyses could be developed for the other questions included on this sheet. The more significant data in each area may lie in the meanings these particular kinds of behaviors have for the teachers, and their reasons for believing that things are being done well or poorly in their school.

3. Communication in the school: Two kinds of communication are carried on by the faculty. One of these is the communication which goes on among the teachers themselves. This has both amount (how much teachers talk to each other) and breadth (how widely they communicate with other teachers). The second kind is communication between the teachers and the principal. Because other research (19) indicates that there are some special problems related to communication within a hierarchy it was important to analyze the communication between teachers and principal separately from the teacher-teacher communication. In both cases, however, the questions asked sought to measure the openness of communication.

From the teacher ratings on the three communication questions, the schools were ranked high, low, or medium for each question. From these rankings it was possible to develop, along with a miscellaneous group, four discrete categories of schools. In the categories which follow, the first letter indicates the position of the school on the amount of teacher-teacher communication, the second letter indicates the relative rank of breadth of communication among teachers, and the third letter indicates the openness of communication with the principal. These four categories are:

HHH: Open communication: Schools which ranked high on all three (10 schools)

HHL: Open among teachers, closed to principal: Schools high on questions 1 and 2, low on question 3 (4 schools)

LLH: Closed among teachers, open to principal: Schools low on questions 1 and 2, high on question 3 (4 schools)

LLL: Closed communication: Schools low on all three (9 schools)

The remaining schools either fell in the medium categories or had some mixed pattern such as HLM. The number of schools with any single mixed pattern was so small that it was not possible to group them meaningfully.

4. The principal as representative of group standards: A leader is often described as a person who represents the beliefs and standards held by the group (e.g., 8, 15). In situations where the leader is imposed on the group by an outside agency (in this case, the superintendent's office), it is relevant to examine how well his beliefs and standards reflect those held by the group he leads. Two areas were selected in which this problem might be explored.

The first area concerned beliefs about what constitutes the core of curriculum activities. The following request was made of the principals and the teachers in May:

Check the two phrases which, in your opinion, best complete this sentence: Curriculum study activities are most worthwhile when they result in . . . . .

1. better selection of textbooks and teaching materials.
2. greater personal satisfaction of the teachers in doing their job.
3. changes in the teachers' day-to-day behavior in the classrooms.
4. agreements and decisions about curriculum problems in the school.
5. more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff.
6. greater community participation in curriculum planning.
7. greater willingness to really try out ideas in the classroom.
8. general agreement that the study activities have been worthwhile.

These phrases were developed on the theory that they would indicate the different underlying needs, assumptions, or beliefs of teachers and principals. A brief statement of the rationale for each phrase follows:

1. Better selection of textbooks and teaching materials.

    "Thing-centered" person, overdependent on materials. Curriculum improvement means better books and materials, with little emphasis on what happens to children as a result of their use.

2. Greater personal satisfaction of the teachers in doing their job.

    The goal of the school is "to make us, the teachers, happy. If we all love our jobs we'll be better teachers." Good morale is the basic satisfaction. This represents a lack of insight into the working dynamics of the situation and the purposes of the school.

3. Changes in the teachers' day-to-day behavior in the classrooms.

    The "good" teacher who says, "I improve my teaching by improving my classroom work; improvement means changes in my own behavior."

4. Agreements and decisions about curriculum problems in the school.

    An avoidance of uncertainty, "We must come to some decision." May believe that decisions usually result ipso facto in change (in opposition to No. 3).

5. More satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff.

    Holds these beliefs: (a) curriculum includes the total school, (b) curriculum cannot be developed without total staff participation, and (c) the relationships of each teacher with the total staff affect how each teaches.

6. Greater community participation in curriculum planning.

    Curriculum is related to the world, which is represented by the community. To the extent that curriculum development is related to communities and involves communities in its development, it will be improved.

7. Greater willingness to really try out ideas in the classroom.

    "I've got a boost in morale and a new motivation to experiment." (A first step in No. 3)

8. General agreement that the study activities have been worthwhile.

    Superficial approach, "It's good to feel good; if we all feel good, it's good."

The choice of phrases made by the teachers and the principal was expected to throw some light on the extent to which the principal's beliefs represented those of his teachers. Were the two phrases selected most frequently by teachers the two which their principals selected?

The second area about which data were secured concerned the teachers' and principals' beliefs about their respective responsibilities for certain activities related to curriculum work. Both teachers and principals were asked to respond to the following item:

There is a wide range of opinion about how effective curriculum development work gets done, and where the responsibilities rest for its accomplishment. Please rate each of the statements below by marking each of them according to the following scale:

1. This is <u>entirely</u> a responsibility of the <u>administration</u> of the school.

2. This is <u>predominantly</u> a responsibility of the <u>administration</u> with active teacher participation.

3. This is <u>equally</u> a responsibility of the <u>administration</u> and the <u>teachers</u>.

4. This is <u>predominantly</u> a responsibility of the <u>teachers</u> with active administration participation.

5. This is <u>entirely</u> a responsibility of the <u>teachers</u>.

6. This is <u>not</u> an important responsibility of <u>either</u> the teachers or the administration.

    a. ____ To attend the curriculum meetings and workshops which are held
    b. ____ To apply or carry out the decisions reached in curriculum meetings
    c. ____ To experiment with new ideas and procedures
    d. ____ To suggest changes in the present curriculum
    e. ____ To make decisions about changes in the curriculum of the school
    f. ____ To work with parents on curriculum problems
    g. ____ To select textbooks and teaching materials
    h. ____ To examine the total school curriculum and its effectiveness
    i. ____ To improve the teaching activities within the individual classroom

These items were intended to tap a variety of responsibilities which are to be found in all school situations. They seem to be regarded as important by the persons in this school system: all principals and all but a negligible number of teachers marked the items important responsibilities of either the teachers or the administration or of both. Because of certain limitations of resources it was not possible to develop the data in this area for inclusion here.

III. Effects on the Teachers

Although there are three kinds of data which have some relevance to the question of the effects of administrative behavior on teachers, the primary data are those regarding the morale of the teachers. The other kinds of information have to do with the reactions of the teachers to the type of school organization developed for curriculum study and their general reaction to the curriculum-study activities.

Four scales were presented to the teachers in February and in May in an attempt to get a measure of their morale regarding the curriculum activities. The four morale components and the respective scales used to measure them were:

1. Sense of direction:

Do you have a feeling you know where you are going in these activities?

Confused, see no direction for myself as yet			Some idea, but not very definite yet				I feel a definite direction for myself

2. Sense of progress:

Do you feel you are getting any place?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
"Bogged down," see little progress				Making fairly satisfactory progress				Making excellent progress

3. Sense of contribution:

How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty are able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Need considerable outside help, staff has limited resources			Able to make much of the needed contribution with little outside help			Able to make all the contribution required for our school		

4. Sense of togetherness:

How close a working relationship do you feel you have with others on the faculty?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Each going his own way				Rather casual but generally co-operative				Very close, everybody pulling together

The second reaction we sought to determine involved the kind of organization which was established for the curriculum study. This scale simply asked teachers to indicate whether they thought the organization resulted in an effective use of time and energy. It is not assumed here that the principal's behavior is the only determinant of the organizational structure.

The third rating requested was general, indicating how profitable the teachers believed the activities during the year had been to them.

Reliability of Instruments

No special methods were used to determine the reliability of the questionnaires. Some estimate of reliability was given by the responses to the question regarding the openness of communication with the principal which was asked of the teachers in both February and May. Inspection of the rankings of the schools on this question for the two questionnaires shows general agreement. The variations which occurred showed a meaningful pattern relating to changing conditions; these findings are reported in the results on communication. The findings were similar on the question regarding the teachers' reaction to the organization, which was also used twice. We can only infer that suitable reliability might be found on the other scales, had they been checked. The Case Analysis and Sentence Completion Tests were originally constructed for use in a broad study of school administrators. They were not pre-tested at the time the study was initiated. The Sentiments Inventory, developed earlier by the senior author, had gone through several revisions and item analyses. It is to be regretted that it was not possible to carry through more intensive checking on the various instruments. Yet, inasmuch as certain relationships that "made sense" did appear in these data, some minimum reliability is inferred as no instrument can correlate with another measure more than it correlates with itself.

Problems in Administering the Questionnaire

In making the arrangements to secure the data for the study, small groups of the principals had been consulted at various times about the purposes and values. There was also one meeting with all of the elementary-school principals in the system at which a preliminary form of the teacher questionnaire was presented to them and discussed. Their suggestions were secured for its improvement. It was anticipated that with these explanations it would be possible for the principals to take back to their schools a report which would put their faculties at ease about supplying the information sought. However, in the actual administering of the questionnaires, it seemed that the study had not been made entirely clear to some of the faculty groups.

As a part of the regular procedure in administering the questionnaires, the teachers were asked to fill out a card which called for their name, their school, the number of years they had taught in the building, and the number of years' teaching experience they had had. This card was coded numerically to the questionnaire. Although the teachers were informed that the material which was being secured was not for the purpose of making personal evaluations and would not be available to anyone in the local administration, some uneasiness developed among them (in a very few situations) on the score that it would be possible to identify their responses on the questionnaire. One teacher went so far as to ask, "How do we know that someone from the administration would not go to your files in Columbus and get this material?" A few teachers refused to put their names on the card or give other identifying information. Only a small percentage of the total teacher group made such a reservation: it was confined primarily to three schools.

This problem, however, may raise some question about the validity of the data which were secured in certain instances. The teachers who were reluctant to identify themselves may also have been over cautious about giving adverse criticism; if they erred in any direction, it would be in expressing less criticism than they felt. The true differences, in those instances, would be greater than those reported in this study. We did not believe, however, that the disparity was great enough to jeopardize the value of the findings.

Conclusion

We have presented a brief description of the setting in which the data of this study were secured. The general design of the research and the description of the instruments which were used are given here. It was not possible to pre-test all of the instruments employed, and in some cases the data secured were too inadequate for use. In our reporting of the data, the material discussed under III, Effects on the Teachers, has been integrated with the findings reported under I and II. In other words, we are asking the question, What are the effects upon the teachers of the qualities and the behaviors of the administrator?

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS, I: THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

This chapter and the one which follows it present the findings developed from the data secured in this study.[1] They are given in the order described in Chapter II (the general framework of the study). The data which are related to the qualities of the administrator appear in this chapter, and the findings regarding his behavior and the reactions of the teachers are given in Chapter V.

Although it was theoretically desirable to make comparisons one step at a time--that is, to compare qualities with behavior and then compare behavior with teacher reactions-- in many cases it seemed equally useful to make comparisons including more than one step. In certain instances the data seemed manageable only in this way.

A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

1. Sex of principals: Since one-third of the elementary-school principals in the school system studied were men, there was a large enough group to make comparisons possible on the basis of sex. These comparisons were made on the various items for both the February and May data.

In tabulations that were made (Table I, p. 117) no evidence was found of any significant differences between the schools in which there were men principals and those in which there were women principals. In the areas represented by this study at least, sex makes no difference.

2. Age and years of experience as principal: Age and years of experience as principal were examined separately in the analysis of the data, but the groupings were so similar and the findings so closely related that they can be discussed together.

We commonly assume that an older person in a job situation will likely be more successful because he has been able to accumulate a background of experience and skill which makes him more effective in his work. Given the same person, experience and maturity may well accrue in this direction. However, our data clearly indicate that in general this statement does not hold true (see Table IIa, pp. 118-19). As a group, younger and less experienced principals are significantly more effective in working with teachers, in terms of the data we have, than are the older, more experienced principals, taken as a group. In considering this generalization it must be remembered, however, that at any given age or experience level there are people who are effective and people who are less effective. The study bears this out for there were some principals in the older age groups whose teachers reacted equally as favorably as did teachers whose principals were in the younger, less experienced group.

---

[1]With few exceptions the data from this study are reported in tables appearing in Appendix A, pp. 115-43 . Parenthetical references are made throughout the text to the table which is under discussion and its page number.

This finding became most conspicuous as we examined the age of the principals. There were seven principals in this study who were under forty years of age (an eighth principal was omitted since he changed from one school to another), and six of these were among the nine principals who had been in their jobs not more than five years.

Four age groups were compared in these data: under forty years, forty-one to fifty years, fifty-one to sixty years, and sixty-one to seventy years. The comparisons among these age groups were made at the time of the February study on ten variables relating to communication, morale, and teacher reaction to curriculum study, and on six of these variables again in May, making a total of sixteen variables. There were no significant differences among any of the age groups over forty years. However, there were 48 comparisons (16 variables times three groups) of the group under forty years with the other three groups. In only one case was an older age group numerically higher on its average ratings than was this young group. In every other case the younger age group was rated higher numerically on the average than were the older groups. In 18 of these 48 cases the differences were significantly in favor of the young group (p = .05 or less). One or more of these significant differences appeared on 9 out of 16 variables.

When we turn to the five items of administrative practices which were measured in May, the differences are even more striking. Again, there were no significant differences among the older age groups of principals, but the seven principals forty years of age or younger were rated significantly higher than any of the older age groups on all five of the following variables: getting supplies, providing information, defining responsibilities, giving approval, and the ease with which the teachers communicated with the principal. These differences were some of the most marked in this entire study.

Similar findings were present also when the years of experience were compared (see Table IIb, pp. 120-21). These, however, were not so clear-cut as those which were found under the age differences. The less experienced principals, however, seemed to be more satisfactory to their faculties, generally, than the more experienced principals. Again this difference appeared most clearly in the items dealing with administrative practices.

The obvious conclusion from these data is that the younger, less experienced principals are the more effective principals. This, however, does not seem to be a finding which would check with our total experience. A more adequate conclusion on the basis of all the data, disregarding, for the moment, this group of principals under forty years of age, would be that there is no significant difference, on the average, between the older and the younger principals or between the less experienced and the more experienced principals in their general effectiveness.

How can we explain, then, the marked differences which were found between the youngest group and the others? Several points immediately come to mind. By definition this group has been most recently trained, and any major changes which have taken place in educational institutions during the last few years in methods of training or concepts relating to the

principal's role would have affected this group directly. The most recent graduates are in the best position to be "well trained" in the latest methods and understandings.

A second possible explanation of the differences found between the youngest group and the rest is that there has been improvement in the selection policies and programs of the city administration. The hiring officers may have made some significant shifts in their points of view and their methods of selection within the last eight or ten years, thereby bringing into the school system a group of administrators of quite different qualifications from those of the older set.

The differences between the youngest age group and the group having the least experience, while not statistically significant, give rise to the question: Is there an age beyond which it is difficult for a person to make the change in role from teacher to principal?

Still a third possibility is that the cadet principal program in this school system has increased the effectiveness with which a new principal has been able to adjust to a new type of position. This was seen as most important in the situation when the finding was discussed with representatives of the school system. The people pointed out the role of the older more experienced principal in helping the cadet prepare for new responsibilities.

Summarizing this section we can say that the mere fact of added experience or advanced age is no guarantee of increased effectiveness as measured by the reactions of teachers to questions used in the study.

3. Recency of graduate study: Much attention is given in the field of education to the problem of professional growth through continuing graduate study. This is often a requirement for salary increases. In this study, the recency of the principal's graduate study was used as a measure of professional interest.

Schools were compared on the basis of whether or not the principal had engaged in graduate study within the preceding five years. In a comparison of these two groups of schools, there were no significant differences on any of the categories of morale and teacher reactions and administrative practices (see Table III, p. 122). However, the numerical differences which did appear almost exclusively favored the group which had engaged in some graduate study within the preceding five years. We must remember, however, that within that group are found the younger principals who, as we just noted, tended to have significantly higher ratings on these items than did the older principals. Therefore the differences related to recency of graduate study, although not significant, might have resulted from the effect of this younger group upon these data.

B. Intellectual Processes

1. Philosophic-mindedness: On the basis of the ratings supplied by the interviewers on philosophic-mindedness of the principals, the schools were divided into three categories: high, medium, and low. The average teacher reactions in the three categories of

schools were compared (see Table IV, p. 123).

No significant differences appear among the high, medium, or low groups on the various items in February. The difference most nearly approaching significance is between the high and low groups on the general rating the teachers gave to the curriculum study.

It is important to note, however, that the pattern of differences which these figures produce seems very consistent. The predominant pattern is that the schools rated higher on this scale tend to be higher on the various measures of teachers' reactions than the lower-rated schools. In May, the difference between the medium and low groups on communication patterns with principals is significant at the .05 level. There is some likelihood that where the rating on philosophic-mindedness was low, one is likely to find less easy communication with the principal.

The consistency of the pattern throughout these items suggests that philosophic-mindedness may represent some underlying quality which permeates a wide area of behavior and produces a fairly consistent but not extensive effect upon the teachers. Smith found that:[2]

> ...attempts to relate the degree of philosophic-mindedness of school principals to such important aspects of the school situation as the morale of teachers and the ease of communication within the school has resulted in data which strongly suggest that the qualities of comprehensiveness, penetration, and flexibility in the thinking of the principal have a consistently salutary effect on the attitudes and opinions of teachers, and hence on the general atmosphere of the school.

We see some value in developing further definition of this quality.

C. Motivational-Emotional Processes and Conditions

Three different devices were used to acquire data related to the motivational-emotional processes within the administrator himself. These measuring instruments were the Runner Personality Analysis Test, the Sentiments Inventory, and the Sentence Completion Test. We present them in that order.

1. Personality measurement: Concern with the problem of personality is based on the assumption that the needs, drives, and expectations of the school administrator will affect his modus operandi and the kinds of relationships he establishes with his teachers. Our question thus becomes: "Are there any relationships between the personal needs and attitudes of the school administrator and his own problem-solving behavior, his behavior with teachers, and the teachers' reactions to him?" In interpreting the findings presented in their bearing upon school administration, it may be as helpful to discover whether these relationships exist as it is to understand the specifics of the findings themselves. In a study such as this, it is impossible to say whether the findings which appear here would apply with certainty to a variety of other situations or in other conditions. To the extent that they tend to support the general theory of personality and behavior, they would likely hold true. However, for the purposes of training administrators it is important to determine the relationships more accurately by further exploration.

---

[2]Smith, op. cit., p. 127.

The personality profiles have been analyzed to identify the relationships of personality to: (a) problem-solving, (b) use of power, (c) communication within the school, and (d) administrative practices.

a. Personality and problem-solving: The hypothesis is that the qualities of the administrator, particularly his motivational-emotional processes, will affect his ability to do satisfactory problem-solving. Although they are by no means entirely satisfactory for the purposes of this study, the best measures secured as examples of problem-solving ability were the responses given by principals to the Case Analysis Test. The findings indicate that there were differences in the personal needs and attitudes of the principals who were scored high (N = 11) on the Case Analysis Test (see discussion, p. 22) as compared with those who were scored low (N = 15).

In general, clinical analysis of the profiles on the Runner Personality Test (description, p. 21) of these two groups indicates the following differences:[3]

(1) The low group which consisted of persons giving the least adequate responses on the Case Analysis Test tended to show a greater amount of emotionality; that is, they were more likely to react to a problem than to consider it thoughtfully.

(2) They appeared to be harboring more resentment and hostility than did those in the high group.

(3) They tended to project blame for their difficulties on to other people or the situation and were less likely to accept personal responsibility for solving a problem.

These indications suggest that in persons who are low on the Case Analysis Test the ability to think may be blocked by emotions and by judgmental and resentful attitudes. They may find themselves unable to bring the maximum intelligence and rationality to bear on it.

b. Personality and use of power: The principals were rated by the interviewers on how they used their power: whether it was used to control the situation in which they worked or to release it (see description, pp. 25, 28).

The group of principals rated as most likely to control were compared with the group of principals most likely to release. Here is how they seemed to differ on the basis of the analysis of the personality findings:

Control (N = 13)	Release (N = 13)
These people tend to repress their impulses - they have a "wait and see" attitude and tend to be conservative. They have a concern for tomorrow and/or the past. They are likely to give less immediate attention to the present. This concern is with tradition or the effects of their actions. They are less likely to react directly to an idea for its own value.	These people tend to be impulsive, optimistic, and sensitive to the present. They are likely to be unconcerned about tradition or the past. They may not concern themselves to any great extent with the future. They are likely to live richly in the present. They neither worry to any extent about, nor save for, the future. They will respond to ideas with enthusiasm, but they may make more commitments than they are able to fulfill because they find it difficult to turn down any request.
They insist upon being in charge of the school because they strongly believe that it is right for someone to be in charge. They believe authority is necessary for effective action.	They are generally warm in nature, want to be liked, and wish to co-operate.
They are not nearly so co-operative as one would expect. They tend to be critical, suspicious, and hostile toward others. They do not trust others to take responsibility; therefore, they can see no reason to give responsibility to them. Hence, they have further need to keep control in their own hands.	They like to know others as individuals. They identify strongly with others and would resist going against their wishes. They tend not to be forceful, as they will not structure the situation for others.

[3] The analysis and interpretations of the data from the Runner Personality Test, including the above and those found on the following pages, were made by the staff of Runner Associates: Jessie Runner, Kenyon Runner and Helen Runner. For a brief description of the approach used by these workers, see Adult Leadership, 3 (December 1954), pp. 11-27.

Control (contd.)

They are relatively less able to make
decisions, but once they have made a
decision they will hold to it rigidly.
They are not likely to yield to
others. Similarly, they will develop
detailed plans in advance of a pro-
gram and are likely to carry those
plans through without wavering, no
matter what situation develops.

Release (contd.)

They are neither blameful nor hostile.
They tend to hold their tongues and
may cause doubt in others because they
do not state clearly what they think.

They are not rigid in the methods they
set up; they even tend to resist
structured methods. Neither do they
look to tradition for guidance.

Examination of these two sets of qualities as they relate to the use of power
suggests that they represent extremes, one of which might be identified as auto-
cratic and the other as laissez faire. We wonder whether the middle ground between
autocracy and non-interference in principals, if it could be clarified, would point
to a more adequate statement of what a "good" administrator is. It may be, how-
ever, that the person described under the release condition may operate with
particular effectiveness if he is working with well-trained, qualified teachers who
are giving energy to their work. In that case, his best course may be to permit
them to develop their own thinking and take the action their judgment dictates as
most suitable for the job to be done.

c. Personality and communication in the school:[4] The groupings of principals
used here are based on the four different communication patterns which were found
in the various schools (see description, p. 28). The comparisons grew from the
assumption that the motivational-emotional processes of the administrator work
through his behavior with the teachers and affect the kinds of communication which
go on in the school. The relationships described here do not state how these
effects are carried through. They can only relate the personality patterns with
reported behaviors in the school. First, the general personality patterns of the
two major categories of communication are examined: those schools in which there
was active communication among the teachers and open communication with the
principal (HHH) and those schools in which there was little communication among
the teachers and closed communication with the principal (LLL).

Personality Characteristics Generally Common
to Principals in:

Low Communication Schools
(N = 9)

Freedom and Structure:

These people tend to need to know
what the structure is all the time.
They emphasize structure and give
less attention to interaction.

They feel they are right, and will
give structure because they perceive
it to be for "the good of the group."
They will emphasize tradition and the
way things have been done; the
methods and systems used will be
given considerable attention. Their
concern with tradition may spring
from fear of being left out of the
group unless they follow the group
mores.

Communication and Group Building:

They tend to take communication for
granted; that is, they assume that
what is important will be communi-
cated. They will not ordinarily give
attention to the development of com-
munication. They assume that the group
is together because it is a physical group.

High Communication Schools
(N = 10)

Freedom and Structure:

These people believe in freedom for
themselves and others. They have the
courage to speak their minds and to
live their beliefs. They also permit
others to have their own independence
and courage.

They do not believe that they are
right; they are unconcerned with the
giving of structure. They are likely
to put more emphasis on interaction
than on structure and organization.
They will likely be responsive to the
needs of the moment, and attempt to
deal with the immediate situation as
they understand it. They will not
attempt to impose a traditional way
of working. They are neither rigid
nor fixed in their own methods.
Systems and detail, as such, are not
their particular concern.

Communication and Group Building:

They make contacts easily with others
and seek communication. They are not
defensive, and can accept communica-
tion from others, even though it may
be hostile.

These people give more attention to

[4] For a popular report of this section, see Jenkins, David H., "Personality in Adminis-
tration," Adult Leadership, 3 (December, 1954), pp. 25-27.

They see themselves as the adminis-
trators who have good (correct)
ideas, therefore, there is no need
to bring people together to develop
good ideas.

They are defensive, and would not be
open to communication that questioned
their "rightness" or that was hostile.

Personal Relations:

They are relatively unconcerned with
other people as people--they are more
likely to see them as objects. They
seem to be more task-centered than
person-centered. They may not be
cold in their affectional reactions,
but they do not care about what people
outside their own group think.

They do not readily admit either their
own inadequacies (they cannot be self-
questioning) or the errors of others.
They are primarily centered on the
task at hand.

When pressed, they will defend them-
selves by their morality and authority.
They are not resilient people.

Concern with Methods and Details:

These individuals will take care of the
details of records and get them into
the central office. They will be willing
to give direction to those teachers who
desire direction (and they will also
give direction to those who don't want
it).

Relations with Community:

These principals accept their respon-
sibility and their role. They would
expect to be leaders in their school
and in their community. However, they
would not encourage the discussion of
controversial issues in the classroom.
They are likely to receive fewer
complaints from the parents of pupils
in their schools since they will attempt
to meet parent expectations (conform to
the community mores). One would not
likely find a "progressive school"
under these administrators.

promoting interaction with others
than to establishing a structural
organization. They will give energy
to creating a feeling of "together-
ness" among their teachers. They do
not assume that the teachers are a
group simply because they are all on
the same staff.

Personal Relations:

These people are generally warm, and
care what people think about them.
They put out energy to make people
care for them, but they do not assume
that they are a group merely because
the teachers are all on the same
staff.

They find no pleasure in making
others unhappy, but instead they
enjoy bringing pleasure and freedom
to others. They are neither suspi-
cious nor hostile.

They appreciate the fact that they
themselves are not perfect. They
accept both themselves and others as
they are.

Concern with Methods and Details:

These individuals will not be much
concerned with the upkeep and trans-
mission of records. They are not
likely to give directions to their
teachers. Teachers who like to be
given directions may tend to be crit-
ical of these administrators for not
giving them more guidance.

Relations with Community:

These principals attempt to develop
with their teachers a school which
both would consider good. They are
little concerned with meeting the
community mores as they apply to
schools. They might well join with
the community in taking the respon-
sibility to bring about changes in
ideas concerning good education. They
will not be interested in having a
school in which there is "good
discipline."

An examination of the characteristic traits of principals under these two com-
munication setups reveals clearly why teachers might be behaving differently under
the contrasting types of principals. As a teacher, one would not be likely to open
a controversial question with the principal who considers himself correct, who is
defensive in his actions, and who is inclined to be hostile. Under these conditions
one would be quite careful about the kind of problem he took to the principal. If,
in addition, the principal himself gave relatively little attention to the problem
of communication as such, one might get the impression that he was not interested in
finding out what others thought. This attitude in itself might promote a defeatist
feeling in the teachers--"What does he care what we think? (19, 27, 34)."

The opposite feeling seemed to be engendered by the characteristics of principals
who work under the high conditions of communication. Even though they are strong
personalities, they are seeking communication, are interested in what their teachers
think, and are receptive of their ideas even though these may be different from their
own. Such principals welcome differences in opinion among teachers instead of dis-
couraging it.

The two major categories in which communication was examined were based on the
two groups of principals described. The two remaining categories give further in-
sight into the relationship between the personality of the principal and the

character of the communication which takes place in the school. Only four schools
fell into the pattern in which there was relatively little communication among the
teachers but open communication with the principal. The personality patterns drawn
from the personality profiles of these four principals seemed to have the following
traits in common:

Freedom and Structure:

These individuals lack personal conviction. They tend to look to others
for determining their purposes. They are inclined to be directionless
in their thinking; they will not push method, or "structure," or inter-
action. They seem reluctant to assume leadership responsibilities.

Communication and Group Building:

These persons initiate contacts with others in order to seek out a feeling
of purpose (which they draw from others). They do not set up barriers to
communication from others. As they have no strong purpose, they are not
disposed to be defensive in their attitude toward communication from others.

Because they lack purpose, they do not concern themselves with building the
staff group. They tend to deal with their teachers on a one-to-one basis.

Personal Relations:

These principals do not make an effort to develop personal relations other
than those dictated by the demands of communication. They generally tend
to be actionless or apathetic. Their attitude toward others is passive.
The attempt to escape trouble is a part of their pattern of life. If
possible, they avoid dealing with conflicts. They are not positive people
but take a generally passive approach to life.

Community Relations:

Because of their apathy, they probably do comparatively little in relation
to the community. They are probably happy to talk with community members,
but little action is likely to occur as the result of such discussion.

Although this communication pattern has been described as one of "low com-
munication among teachers and open communication with principal," these data bring
this classification into question. While the question about communication with the
principal asked teachers whether they felt free to communicate with their prin-
cipals, it yielded no data as to whether communication was actually going on. It
seems a likely guess that in this pattern of communication teachers may feel free
to talk to the principal but have little to talk about as a result of the fact
that the principal has relatively few purposes to discuss and little direction to
give. Because of the low communication among the teachers, they themselves are
not likely to have formulated their purposes. Therefore, they may have few ideas
to communicate to the principal.

This hypothesis tends to be supported by examining certain cases which were
found under conditions of high communication (HHH). Two of the cases in that
group seemed to have patterns typical of these four kinds of principals. It may
be that in those two schools the faculties themselves have their own strong
leadership, so that they can communicate a sense of direction to the principal.
This would meet his greatest need. He would be happy to let them follow their
own directions, and he would collaborate with them. Further analysis of this
kind might lead to much greater insight into the problem of placing principals in
suitable schools.

The fourth communication pattern which was analyzed was that in which there
was active communication among the teachers but little feeling of freedom to com-
municate with the principal (HHL). One tends to explain the dearth of communica-
tion by one or another of the following theories: these principals have been
disregarded by their faculties, the faculty has in some sense organized itself for
protection against the principal, or the faculty is in active opposition to the
principal.

The four cases in this category do not show similar patterns. Each principal
has apparently given the group a particular reason for not feeling free to com-
municate with him. Here are some brief summaries of the personality reports.

Principal 1: This person seemingly dislikes his job and probably communicates
this dislike to his teachers. He is sloppy and does not take care of details.
Neither does he enjoy meeting the requirements of his job. He is likely to
be touchy and irritated by demands made upon him. He will defend his right
not to do what he doesn't want to do, but he is concerned about what people
think of him.

Principal 2: This person is rigid and unyielding. He resents and distrusts his faculty and shows no warmth toward them. He knows he is right and is actively hostile to any suggestion to the contrary. He tends to feel that his faculty is against him (which it likely is), and there has probably developed a vicious circle of mutual rejection and recrimination.

Principal 3: This person is also rigid and unyielding, critical and aggressive. He has a strong feeling of urgency but, although he is not clear about what his purposes are, he rejects others' ideas of what are appropriate purposes. He is careless of social relations and insensitive to the feelings of others. He gives some approval but overbalances it with hostile criticism. He lacks a clear conception of himself in his role.

Principal 4: This person would seem to be much happier in the role of a manual training or a domestic science teacher. He enjoys working with things and teaching people about them. Since he does not like to make decisions, he does not like the leadership role and doesn't meet the requirements for it. He would probably frustrate teachers because he would put off decisions and be unwilling to accept the responsibilities which accompanied them. He is weak in this role. He undoubtedly disturbs the teachers because they do not find it possible to work well with him.

In general, these principals seem to have made an inadequate adjustment to the role of administrator and have produced active frustrations or hostilities on the part of their faculties. This unfortunate tendency is extreme enough to color the entire relationship.

These descriptions suggest marked differences which are related to the various communication patterns found in the school setting.

d. Personality and administrative practices: The two groups which received high and low ratings on the five administrative practices are compared here (see description, p. 27). The high group ranked among the top third of the entire group of principals on all of the five practices of supplying materials, getting information to teachers, giving approval, defining roles, and encouraging open communication with the principal. The low group was correspondingly low on all five of these elements.

Here are some personality characteristics which seemed common to all of the principals within the low and high groups:

Personality Characteristics Generally Common to Principals

Low on Administrative Practices
(N = 6)

These persons have no strong sense of freedom or desire to experiment--they prefer to know exactly what to expect next. They are generally ambitious people, seeking personal success and financial reward. They are egocentric, their primary concern being their own interests.

They seem to compete with each other and with their teachers, although they tend to be rebellious against authority. They are likely to stick to details of methods and of mechanics rather than to get an over-all view.

They haven't fully accepted the responsibilities of the job. However, they wish to appear favorably to others. They need to keep proving themselves. They are not identified with the job or the situation in which they work.

They tend to be manipulators of others, quick to take personal offense and to make excuses. They do not identify with other people. They are inclined to be cold, non-compliant, and unco-operative. They are willing to be argumentative. They tend to repress their hostilities, which are fairly strong.

High on Administrative Practices
(N = 7)

These people definitely take an analytical approach to problems without being blocked by their own emotions. They have long-range purposes. They are perceptive as well as purposeful. They possess the ability to form farseeing plans and judgments.

In their planning and activities they consider the entire field and the total situation. They are receptive to ideas, open-minded, and not egocentric--they consider themselves only as a relevant part of the whole field under consideration. Their purposes are shaped by the demands of the situation at hand.

They have a good sense of method, but it is used as a means, not as an end. They are somewhat outgoing, not withholding.

Their sense of duty and obligation to their job is high. They have fully accepted the responsibilities of the job. They do not demand the center of the stage. They are sufficiently secure not to need to demonstrate their ability. They do not make excuses or

They desire power and control. They are generally worried and anxious.

use stratagems to shift the responsibility.

They are accepting in a matter-of-fact sort of way. They are not necessarily warm people, but they are willing to accept others. They are able to work well with others, willing to compromise if necessary. They are not dominating, however. They are self-assured in their situation. They are not interested in power, as such, for they do not see it as contributing to their purposes. They are without personal hostilities and aggressions, but they will state their opinions clearly, without emotion.

Two cases found in the low group are exceptions to the general pattern described. One of these does not now show many of the undesirable traits suggested but lacks the positive attributes found in the high group. He simply has nothing to offer. The other is not high on these traits, but he is unable to identify himself with other people and tends to be apathetic and lethargic, and therefore will not take any action.

There seem to be rather marked differences in the characteristic traits of the principals who were high in administrative practices and those who were low. In many ways the high group seems to represent the values commonly held to be necessary for good administration. One must be careful to note, however, that these same qualities may not be equally valuable in all circumstances. For example, it may be that the principals whose schools were highest in administrative practices did not have the best relations with the surrounding community. Perhaps these administrators are less stimulating to their teachers or less interested in carrying on an active program with the community.

It is interesting to note that somewhat different personality patterns appear in each of the four areas related to the "more desirable" conditions. This suggests that there is little likelihood of finding a single set of traits which is useful in meeting all problems. However, there were one or two principals who rated consistently high in the various categories. These, of course, were exceptional individuals. We shall give more detailed attention to them in Chapter VI. In most cases the more important requirements of the school must be determined, and administrators selected or trained who have appropriate personality patterns for the needs which exist in their schools.

2. Principal's attitudes and principal participation: One of the important assumptions outlined in the earlier chapters was that the principal's attitudes would affect his behavior. We have described previously (Chapter III) the kind of participation which the principal had in the curriculum study activities. The table which follows relates two of the scales drawn from the Sentiments Inventory, the A-Scale and the F-Scale, and the three types of principal participation in curriculum activities. The A-Scale attempts to measure attitudes toward authority, the low end of the scale suggesting a dependence upon experts and an unwillingness to consider group discussion and group thinking as valid. The F-Scale contains items which measure "anti-democratic" attitudes. The low ratings on this scale, as it was scored in this project, are associated with persons who tend to be stereotyped and arbitrary in their thinking. The data suggest that the higher the score on the A-Scale, that is, the more the person considers group thinking as valid, the more likely is he to be participating with his faculty in their activities. The differences follow this pattern, but none is significant.

Principal Attitudes and
Organizational Arrangements

Principal Participation		A-Scale	F-Scale
A. Principal Out (N = 13)	M	0.0	4.08
	SD	6.45	9.66
B. Principal in Total Staff Group Only (N = 13)	M	.38	-.38
	SD	7.25	11.78
C. Principal in Total Staff and in One or More Sub-groups (N = 9)	M	3.55	8.22
	SD	4.64	7.45
Differences			
BC	t		1.94

The pattern of data on the F-Scale suggests that the principal who participates in activities of the staff group as a whole and also in those of the sub-groups will have less anti-democratic attitudes than those who participate in the large group only. This difference approaches significance. The non-participating principals were not found to be those with the most anti-democratic attitudes.

3. Principal's attitudes and teachers' reactions: Further relationships between the scores of the principals on the A and the F-Scale of the Sentiments Inventory and the various reactions and ratings given by their teachers are found in Table V, p. 124. The lack of significant differences, or a trend of differences when the A-Scale scores were compared, implies that these attitudes were not an important element affecting the teachers' reactions.

The F-Scale results show a pattern of differences suggesting that the principals who are less anti-democratic in their attitudes (high on the F-Scale) are likely to have teachers giving somewhat favorable reactions. Seven of the differences approach significance, and two of them are significant. One of these is the teachers' reaction to organization as revealed in the February questionnaire, and the other is the administrative practice of supplying information.

Summary

It is apparent from the findings presented in this chapter that certain qualities of the school principal do affect his rapport with his teachers. The most noticeable relationships were those between the teacher reactions and (a) the communication pattern in the school, (b) certain administrative practices, and (c) the personality of the administrator. In general, significant relationships were not found between teachers' reactions and other items such as the age, sex, years of experience, or recency of graduate training of the school administrator. One exception was found in which a group of the youngest and

least experienced principals was found to be significantly higher on many of the teacher reaction items than were the other principals. Certain other relationships are suggested between some of the attitude measures and the teachers' reactions.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, II: THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

The previous chapter has presented the findings related to the first area of our framework, the qualities of the administrator. In this chapter we shall examine the findings in the remaining two areas, planning and problem-solving behavior and the behavior of the administrator with his staff.

A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

The question posed for this area of study was, "How does the administrator go about solving a problem or planning for its solution?" In the general schema this was called behavior with himself and was not included as one of the qualities of the administrator (see Chapter II). The categorizations developed on the basis of the Case Analysis Test were used in exploring this area.

1. Approach to problems: The first set of categories used in analyzing this test was called approach. One group of principals was judged to approach problems primarily through relations-building, getting the relevant people together to work the problem out. Another group was primarily administration-centered, the administrator making the decisions and taking whatever action he deemed necessary.

Contrary to first expectations, we find that there is a consistent pattern of differences in favor of the administration-centered approach over the relations-building approach as evinced by the teachers' reactions to the curriculum study and the morale items. Four of these differences are significant, all the others pointing in the same direction (see Table VI, p. 125).

Originally it was expected that the relations-building category would probably represent a "democratic" approach; the principal would show a high degree of concern about his staff members and their relations to himself and each other. It was also expected that he would believe it important to take action to build more satisfying relationships among his staff members. In contrast, the administration-centered approach was believed to represent a disregard of the staff members as individuals and the assumption of decision-making by the administrator, who would attempt to put his decisions into effect with dispatch. From this orientation it was assumed that the teachers would express greater satisfaction under the relations-building approach. This did not prove to be the case for either the general ratings or the morale items.

For the items which concerned administrative practices, the reverse was found. For all five items, the relations-building category was higher than the administration-centered category, two of these differences approaching significance. This trend is also contrary to the expectation that principals who were administration-centered would carry

forward carefully and effectively these administrative practices, while the relations-building principals would be lax about them.

This reversal of expected findings raises some questions for consideration. When the teachers are asked to participate in a program like the curriculum study work, which is relatively permissive and initially ambiguous, does the principal who is primarily relations-building provide too little clarity of purpose and direction and insufficient authority to give the teachers a feeling of security? When confronted with operational questions like getting supplies and giving information about which the teachers have had a good deal of relevant experience, does the administration-centered principal assume authority and make decisions too quickly, without permitting the teachers to participate in matters with which they feel competent to deal? If these questions are correctly answered in the affirmative, then hypotheses like the following would be appropriate:

    a. When a situation is new, unclear, or ambiguous, teachers will express greater satisfaction when the principal exerts greater initiative in planning and decision-making with his staff.
    b. When the situation is one previously experienced by teachers, they will express greater satisfaction when the principal permits initiative for planning and decision-making to be taken by the staff.

These two hypotheses reaffirm the more general statement that the principal will need to orient his planning and behavior to the particular situation in which his staff finds itself, in order to create greater teacher satisfaction.

2. Over-all rating: The second set of categories was based on an over-all rating of the responses to the Case Analysis Test. The three categories were high, middle, and low: the high group comprised those judged to have made responses that were stereotyped, superficial, or indicative of a judgmental attitude.

The data developed with these categories present another unexpected picture (see Table VII, pp. 126-27). On the items of teacher morale and general ratings of the curriculum study, the low group is, without exception, higher than the middle group and, with only two exceptions, higher than the high group. The high category is, with three exceptions, higher than the middle group. Four of the differences between the low and the middle group are significant. Thus, the low group tends to have ratings representing the greatest satisfaction among the teachers, the high category is next, and the middle category shows the least satisfaction, that is, the lowest mean ratings.

The trend these data indicate--a finding still difficult to accept--is that the principals who appear stereotyped, judgmental, or superficial in their planning and problem-solving are more likely to have teachers with high morale and general satisfaction than are the principals who are analytical and less judgmental (5, 32). The middle group, showing the lowest morale, may represent a "confused" condition.

Although these trends can only be suggestive, they point in the direction of the hypothesis that teachers similar to those responding in this study will in general express greater satisfaction and higher morale under principals who have some of the traits usually

attributed to the authoritarian personality (1).

There were no differences evident on the items involving administrative practices when related to the over-all rating.

The findings reported under this section are inconclusive, and the data can only be suggestive. The factors concerned in teacher morale and satisfaction are still problematic enough to offer challenge for further work. Whether the meager responses which were secured on so many of the Case Analysis Tests were due to the nature of the instrument or to a true lack of ability to plan or to solve problems in a clear, analytical manner is not known. The fact that the responses to several questions in the interviews which were aimed at this same ability were so tenuous that they were unusable suggests that the problem revolves around the question of ability.

B. Behavior with the Faculty

1. The atmosphere in the staff: The four ratings given each principal at the time of the interview constitute the basic data for examining this area. These ratings, it will be recalled, were the results of the impressions made upon the interviewer during the course of the interview. They did not result from any independent measurement made by the teachers (see description, pp. 24-25).

a. Atmosphere: Three categories were developed from the first scale labeled "Atmosphere." These were the warm-friendly group at one end of the scale, the hostile-defensive group at the other end of the scale, and the group of principals who fell between these two extremes. There were five principals categorized in the hostile group, eighteen in the friendly group, and twenty-one in the middle group (see Table VIII, pp. 128-29).
Few significant differences appeared in the teachers' responses on these three categories. The friendly group did have significantly more communication among the teachers than did the middle and hostile groups. The differences on the other communication items were not significant. In May, the friendly group gave a significantly more favorable reaction to the organization used in the curriculum study and in their general rating of the curriculum study activities than did the schools in the hostile group. No other comparisons were significant at the .05 level.
b. Focus of effort: Again three categories were used. At one extreme are the fifteen schools in which the principals were rated as being primarily concerned with teacher growth, and at the other extreme are the twelve schools in which they were rated as being chiefly interested in the task or product. The principals in the seventeen remaining schools were placed in the middle category (see Table IX, pp. 130-31).
There were few significant differences. The middle group was significantly higher on the general rating of the curriculum study in February than was the task-oriented group. Also, the middle group was significantly higher in February than either of the extreme groups on the morale items of sense of direction and sense of progress. Perhaps the middle group, seen as giving attention to both task and growth, was able to be more objective in its work and thus capable of supplying a clearer sense of direction and progress than were the extreme groups. In May, the middle group was significantly higher on its general rating of the over-all curriculum study than was the task-oriented group.
The pattern of numerical differences on the items of administrative behavior tends to favor consistently the group oriented to teacher growth, although none of the differences was significant. On three of these items—defining responsibility, giving approval, and ease of communication with the principal—the middle condition was lowest numerically.
c. Focus of field: The scale used in measuring this variable was built around the concept of self-centeredness. One end of the scale was defined as self-centered and the other as non self-centered. Four principals were rated by the interviewers as being in the self-centered category, while sixteen were in the opposite category. Twenty-two principals constituted the middle group (see Table X, pp. 132-33).
The data gathered in February yield four differences of significance. In each case the difference is between the middle and the self-centered groups, the former being higher. Differences are significant on the teachers' reactions to organization,

their general rating of the curriculum study, and the morale items of sense of direction and sense of progress. In all of these cases, the non self-centered group is more like the middle group, than is the self-centered group, but it is not significantly different from the self-centered group.

On the basis of the reports in May, apparently the four schools in the self-centered group had very unsatisfactory experiences with the curriculum study. Very marked differences on the general rating of the curriculum study exist between the self-centered group and the other two. The self-centered group of schools is similarly very low on the four items used to measure morale.

In contrast, patterns of difference do not maintain themselves strongly when items concerning administrative practices are examined. Although the non self-centered group is numerically higher in respect to these on all five scales than either of the other groups, differences are not great on several of the items, and in this set of ratings the middle group tends to be more similar to the self-centered group and the other two. Apparently, whatever variable was being rated here by the interviewer does not particularly impede the ability of the principal to administer the school in the narrower sense, although it may impede his ability to be an educational leader of his school.

d. Use of power: It is the fate, or the opportunity, of the school principal that he occupies a position of power in his school. It was an objective of this study to determine how each principal used his power, and whether this factor had any meaning for this investigation.

The scale on which the interviewer rated the principal went from "controls situation" to "releases situation." The concept of control was that some principals tend to use their power to determine what others should do. The principal made the important decisions.

The concept of release was that some principals actively use their power to free the teachers to do what they, the teachers, feel is important. This concept attempted to go beyond the idea that the principal simply let the teachers do what they wanted; instead, he might use his power to prevent them from blocking each other in doing what they wanted or to help them find the necessary confidence in themselves to do what they wanted.

The more common pattern of differences found in the data favors the releasing situation (see Table XI, pp. 134-35). Without exception throughout all of the tabulations, the average rating of the thirteen schools in this category was numerically higher than that of the thirteen schools rated as operating under the controls situation. In February, the two categories of releasing situation and the middle category were significantly higher than the controls group on teachers' reactions to problem selection, to organization, and to general curriculum study. The "released" category was also significantly higher than the "controlled" category on the amount of teacher-teacher communication. Differences in the same direction were also found between the controls and the releases groups on the teachers' sense of direction and sense of progress in February.

In May, the teachers' reactions to the organization and their general rating of the curriculum study continued to be significantly higher among the releases schools than among the controls schools. It seems that, in a developing program, the principal who is judged as using his power to free the teachers for effective work does, in fact, have the effect of increasing the morale in his school and the general approval of the program being carried on.

Although the pattern of differences follows the same direction for the items concerned with administrative practices, none of these was significant.

2. Procedures and processes used by the administrator

a. Decision-making in selecting problems: It was possible to examine the way in which the faculty went about deciding upon the problems on which it would center its curriculum study work. Six different categories of decision-making were found, the last two being conditions in which there was lack of agreement among the teachers about the procedure which was used (see description, p. 26).

No particular method of making staff decisions seems favored by the data (see Table XII, p. 136). In the reactions of the teachers recorded in February, there are no significant differences among these various categories. There are, however, some interesting patterns of figures. For example, the teachers have the highest average reactions in schools where the selection of problem was made by a teachers' group or a teacher committee's group. The lowest average reactions exist where the selection was made by the principal. This confirms our usual biases. However, the pattern which is frequently thought to be the best, that of principal and teachers together, is a bare third highest of all the six categories. Note, however, that it was necessary for the teachers to write in this statement, while any of the first three responses could be checked (see description, p. 26).

Rather different phenomena are suggested when one examines the two columns about teacher-teacher communication. Here, as we might anticipate, schools in which the opinion is divided between the teachers as to the way the decision was made (Group "D") rank lowest in the amount and breadth of teacher-teacher communication. This finding seems to reinforce the general observation that where communication is relatively low among teachers, one is likely to find a divided

opinion. This might be somewhat contrasted, for interest at least, with the situation (Group "S") where there is just general guessing about how the decision was made, the teacher-teacher communication in these schools ranking somewhat higher than in Group "D." Group "D" may then describe a divided condition within the school, suggesting some direct barriers to communication. The group of schools in which the principals and teachers made the decision together tends to be higher in breadth of communication among the teachers and also ranks highest in the amount of freedom of communication with the principal. The lowest-ranking group in communication with the principal is that in which the teachers' opinions are spread about how the decisions were made: they simply did not have any agreement.

Several differences are noted in the ratings of sense of togetherness in these categories of schools. As one might expect, the group in which principals and teachers made decisions jointly rates highest in its sense of togetherness. This seems directly relevant: the staff which is working together feels together. Conversely, the staff which is clearly divided, as in Group "D," is not united. There is a significant difference between this condition and circumstances in which principals and teachers share a feeling of togetherness. Other conditions range between these two extremes. However, the set up in which the principal makes the decision does not of itself rule out for his faculty a sense of togetherness.

The data for May show what effects the way decisions were made had on the teachers' reactions four months later. One of the most striking findings suggested by the pattern of these figures is the decrease on several of these ratings of the "PT" group in which the principals and teachers together made the decision. For example, in February this group tended to rank high in the teachers' reactions to the organizational structure, whereas in May it is lowest. Although its February position was not particularly high on the general rating of the curriculum study, here it has increased least of any of the groups and now ranks lowest of these six groups in this area. It has also dropped on three of the four morale items; it is now lower in sense of direction, in sense of progress, and in sense of togetherness than it was in February. Its feeling of sense of contribution has remained essentially unchanged.

In contrast to this pattern is the category of schools in which the principal made the decisions. These schools increased their satisfaction with the organization and made a sizable increase in their general rating of the curriculum study as a whole. They also showed some increase in each of the four morale items. Schools in this group now ranked highest of the six categories of schools in their sense of togetherness, and second highest in their sense of contribution. They were highest on this last item in February. While not conclusive, these findings bring into question the thesis that to function satisfactorily, teachers must be involved in the making of decisions.

b. Organizational arrangements: Three kinds of organizational arrangements were analyzed from the data. The first of these was the size of group and the structure of organization used in the curriculum activity, the second was the use of grade groups or interest groups, and the third was the kind of participation the principal exhibited in the curriculum activities (see description, pp. 25-26).

(1) Size of groups: Inasmuch as the curriculum activities were set up on a building-unit basis and tasks were selected, most of the schools used small-group work in one way or another. These schools differed in the kind of organizational arrangement they had established around small group activity. Some had a co-ordinating committee or steering committees working with small groups, but they also worked in certain ways as a total staff. Table XIII, p. 137, shows the four categories of organizational structure which were used (small groups only, small groups and total staff group or a coordinating committee, small groups with a co-ordinating committee and total staff group, and total staff group only), the number of schools in each category, and how the teachers in these schools reacted to four of the questions in February. It seemed to make little difference which pattern of organization was used.

A similar lack of differences relating to the structure of organization was found again in May. The teachers in the various organizational patterns did not differ in degree of satisfaction with the organization, nor did they differ significantly in the general rating they made of the curriculum study activities in their perception of the kinds of administrative behaviors carried out in their schools.

The only difference which was found in morale that related to structure of organization was the sense of contribution as it was reported by the teachers in February. The teachers in the schools which were organized solely in small groups (S) had significantly less sense of contribution at that point than did the schools in which teachers were working in a more integrated organization (STC) and those in which the entire staff was working together. However, the differences which appeared in February had disappeared by the time the May measurement was taken.

Some of these findings seem to indicate that the particular organizational structure which is used in carrying out staff activities does not of itself affect the teachers' morale or their general reactions to the operation of the school. We must remember, however, that under each of these conditions the individual schools differed considerably. This suggests that other factors besides structure are important.

(2) Grade groups and interest groups: The schools using small groups as a

part of their curriculum work formed these groups either according to the grades the teachers taught or according to the teachers' interest in a particular problem. There is a variety of opinion about the relative usefulness and effectiveness of these common organizational patterns. In order to explore which organizational pattern was related to favorable teacher reaction, schools which used both of these methods in their small groups were compared with each other and with the group of schools which worked as a total staff (see Table XIV, p. 138).

Throughout all of the data, there were no differences approaching significance among these three groupings of schools on any of the variables measured in February and in May. It seems clear from these data that it makes no difference in the teachers' reactions whether their school is organized in small interest groups, in small groups according to grade levels, or as a total working staff. The organizational pattern, therefore, was not related to the reactions of the teachers--whatever differences occurred in teacher reaction among the various schools must have been due to other variables.

(3) Principal participation in curriculum activities: A third area examined in organizational arrangements was the participation of the principal in the curriculum activities. Table XV, p. 139, indicates that there was an increasing satisfaction among the teachers with the organizational pattern of their activities as the principal's participation with the teachers in those activities increased. The difference between schools in which the principal participated in the total staff and subgroup activity and those in which he failed to participate is a significant one.

The pattern of figures suggests a greater amount and breadth of teacher-teacher communication in schools where the principal is working with the total staff but does not involve himself in small group activities with the teachers. This pattern of findings raises some question as to the profitableness of extended or too intimate communication with teachers on the part of the principal. Perhaps too great opportunity for communication may reduce the ease which teachers feel in communicating with their principal. The differences which they may have with the principal may become clearer because of his accessibility. Or it may be that the principal makes his own biases so strongly felt that communication is reduced. The principal who remains in a detached role may be easier to talk to either because of his more formal relationship or because he is less likely to have made his own opinion clear. These figures are only suggestive of what might be an interesting problem of communication within the school hierarchy (19).

The same pattern of teachers' reaction to the organization was found in May as was found in February, although it is somewhat less significant. Greater satisfaction with the curriculum study is also related to increased participation of the principal, although, again, these differences are not significant.

In the items involving administrative behavior, the question raised seems to be, "Is a certain amount of distance necessary between the principal and his staff?" Another possible interpretation of these data is that those principals who become totally involved find themselves in a relationship with teachers which hampers them in performing their other administrative tasks adequately. They may not have defined their role in their relations with the teachers as clearly as have the principals under the other sets of circumstances. In effect, this may ask the question, "Is close participation with the teachers the most effective way that the principal can be of help to them?" "Are there certain responsibilities or divergencies of role which must be clarified and maintained so that the teachers do secure the best help from the principal?"

In the reactions of teachers to the morale items, we find for most items the pattern of the principal out having the lowest morale and the principal in total condition tending to have the highest morale. None of these differences is significant, but the pattern maintains itself with some consistency. However, at the time of the May reactions the principal in total condition continues to be lowest on both the teachers' sense of contribution and their sense of togetherness. This is somewhat surprising, particularly in the area of togetherness, as one might assume that the principal's close participation with his faculty would lead to greater feelings of togetherness. This does not seem to be true. Again, the question of appropriateness of role seems to be indicated.

c. Administrative practices of principals: On the basis of ratings which teachers made in May on the five scales of administrative practices, it was possible to categorize two groups of schools: those which ranked among the upper third of all schools on all five of these scales and those which ranked among the lower third. The differences between these two groups on selected items are reported below.

The consistent pattern is that schools which were rated high on the administrative practices are also schools in which teachers had higher morale and greater satisfaction with the curriculum study activities. These differences are significant in four of the five cases. The data upon which these groupings were based were the teachers' perceptions of how well they had been kept informed, how much approval they received, etc. The results demonstrate the clear relationship between teachers' reactions to items related to the curriculum study and their reactions to the administrative practices of the principal. The morale of the teachers, therefore, as measured by this study, seems to be closely related to the general administrative skills of the principal.

Administrative Practices of Principals
and Teacher Reactions
(May)

		General Rating	T. Sense of Direction	T. Sense of Progress	T. Sense of Contribution	T. Sense of Togetherness
		6	3	4	7	8
A.	High on all five administrative practices (N = 7)	M	4.57	6.23	5.10	4.78	6.66
		SD	.50	.57	.64	.98	.27
B.	Low on all five administrative practices (N = 6)	M	3.50	4.92	3.96	4.08	5.25
		SD	.85	.33	.62	.28	.86
	Differences	t	2.58**	4.52**	2.98**	1.56	3.79**

(one tailed "t")[1]
**p = $<$.01

d. Teachers' concern with staff relationships: One of the possible responses to a question asked the teachers about worth-while goals of curriculum study (see Schedule IV, C, p. 153, and description, p. 129) was "more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff." In nine schools, forty per cent or more of the teachers responded that "improved working relationships" would be one of their two top goals in curriculum study activities. In another group of eight schools, seventeen per cent or less of the teachers gave this item top ranking. Inspection of the data raised the question whether the ranking of this item could be related to the conditions which obtained in the school. In other words, does the desire for more satisfactory working relationships arise from a consciousness of unsatisfactory conditions?

Using the two groups described, the teachers' reports of the amount of approval they thought they received from the principal were compared. The difference was significant. The schools which had indicated greater concern about satisfactory working relationships also indicated that significantly less approval was given them by the principal than did the schools which indicated less concern with working relationships.

Teachers' Concern With Staff Relationships
and Teachers' Perception of Approval By the Principal

			Giving Approval
			13
A.	Schools in which 40 per cent or more of the teachers gave "more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff" as a worth-while goal of curriculum study. (N = 9)	M	4.90
		SD	1.15
B.	Schools in which 17 per cent or fewer of the teachers gave "more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff" as a worth-while goal of curriculum study. (N = 8)	M	6.30
		SD	.82
	Differences	t	2.69*

*p = $<$.05

The idea that the unfulfillment of a need causes people to be more concerned with that need, an idea basic in much psychological theory, is supported by these data. The human relations needs of the teachers, if overlooked, become sensitive points in the everyday job.

---

[1]See description, Appendix A, p.

e. Communication in the school
(1) Communication patterns: Four patterns of communication were described: high communication schools (HHH), low communication schools (LLL), and two categories of mixed patterns (HHL and LLH) (see description, p. 28, and Table XVI, pp. 140-41). As a group, schools in the high communication pattern (HHH) rank higher than those in any of the other communication patterns in each variable of teacher reaction in February. With one exception, the low communication schools (LLL) are lowest on these ratings in February. The difference between the high communication and the low communication schools in the teachers' reactions to the organization, their general rating of the curriculum study, and the four morale measures in February are significant.

The same general pattern of differences shows up in examining the remaining figures. The HHH and the LLH patterns rank higher than the two categories where the communication with the principal is low (HHL and LLL). The only case where this is not true is in the general rating where the LLH pattern is slightly lower than the HHL. This finding suggests that the difference in the communication pattern which is the deciding factor in the teachers' reactions is their feeling that the principal is open to communication. Those schools in which there is high communication among the teachers but low communication with the principal (HHL) are high in their sense of progress. They differ significantly from the LLL schools on this point. Communication among the teachers may offer one opportunity for the groups to feel progress.

The high communication schools (HHH) differ significantly from the other three as concerns the teachers' belief that they have made a contribution. It may be that in the schools in which there is open communication the teachers discover greater capability among themselves in approaching the task at hand.

A somewhat different finding is suggested by the togetherness patterns as compared with the communication patterns. Even though the open communication groups (HHH) are highest here, the second highest group is the HHL pattern. One wonders whether this condition does not represent a cohesion among the faculty group separated from the principal. To the extent that the teachers do have communication among themselves, they have, it seems appropriately, a rather high sense of togetherness even though they may tend to be low on other items. However, this might be a togetherness against, as opposed to the HHH pattern of togetherness with, the principal. The two conditions of low communication among the teachers also tend to be the two lowest in the sense of togetherness. In this particular item of morale it seems that the teacher-teacher relationship is somewhat more crucial than the teacher-principal communication relationship.

Let us turn to the similar data secured in May. Here we find the HHL pattern highest in feelings of togetherness. This is slightly higher than in the open communication schools, although the difference is not quite significant. The HHL group is significantly higher, however, than the LLH and the LLL patterns, thus giving additional reinforcement to the idea that this group is together against something rather than together with something. This conclusion is suggested because the group appears highest primarily on this one item and tends to be low on the other items more closely related to the task at hand.

This interpretation is given some validity by the material on morale which was used as a base for setting up these items. Goodwin Watson (35), in his discussion of morale, listed five items, the last of which was "feeling of common enemy." For the purposes of this study this item was not a major component in teacher morale; therefore, no attempt was made to develop that idea. However, this particular communication condition suggests that if the teachers see the administrators as a common enemy, it has some influence on their morale. This is not to say anything about the productivity of their morale.

Turning to other items in May, the amount of difference on most of these items seems to have been reduced. There is some change in the pattern of highest category. For example, in February, teachers' reactions to the organization ranked highest in the open communication schools and lowest in the closed communication schools. In May, however, although the open communication schools (HHH) still maintained their high rank, the low communication schools (LLL) were next highest. The two mixed communication patterns (HHL and LLH) are now at the lowest point of the categories. The same pattern of difference is also found in May in the teachers' general rating of curriculum study. Here the schools characterized as LLH are lowest at the end of the year in the teachers' general rating of curriculum work. In the first three of the morale items, the low communication schools have again moved into second place. The significant differences remain between the HHH group and the LLL and HHL group, the open communication group being higher than the two groups in which communication is closed to the principal.

Further information related to the differences between these various conditions of communication is presented below.

This is a schematic table showing the changes on several of these items between the February and May measurements. The plus or minus signs indicate a change in the average ratings of the schools in each of these groups of either plus or minus .10 from February to May; o indicates a change of less than .10. The changes which are statistically significant are indicated by the asterisks (* = .05

Intra-School Communication
Changes in Teachers' Reactions, February to May

		Reaction to Organization	General Rating	Communication with Principal	Sense of Direction	Sense of Progress	Sense of Contribution	Sense of Togetherness
HHH N=10	t	+ .469	+ 2.819*	+ 1.000	+ .597	+ .500	+ 1.493	- .784
HHL N=4	t	o .046	+ .619	+ .887	- 1.244	- .873	+ 2.144	+ 2.816
LLH N=4	t	- 1.277	+ 1.706	+ 1.308	- 2.761	+ 1.188	+ .660	- .767
LLL N=9	t	+ 5.050**	+ 6.487**	+ 7.385**	+ 3.279*	+ 3.541**	+ 1.200	+ 4.715**

** = .01).[2] In the two patterns in which communication with the principal was low, significant improvements were made by the low communication schools (LLL), whereas the HHL schools, in which many of the items were initially almost equally low, made no significant changes.

It seems possible to conclude from an analysis of this material that the situation where the communication is open among the teachers but closed to the principal may represent a dynamically frozen situation in which change may not be easy or even possible. Where communication is low among all components of the school, the establishment of communication opportunities such as were available through the curriculum work led to increased communication and a consequent improvement in the teachers' reactions and morale. The LLL condition even increased significantly in its communication with the principal. This was not true of the HHL condition.

Let us examine the data related to the communication categories and the teachers' reactions to the administrative practices. The two conditions in which communication to the principal is high, HHH and LLH, tend to be highest on all of the items related to administrative behavior. When there is open communication with the principal, he is seen as more adequately carrying out administrative responsibilities. These two groups do not differ significantly on any of these items; they are both approximately equally high. At the bottom we find the HHL condition. This seems to furnish further evidence of the cohesion of the teachers in rejecting the administrative behavior. Although the LLL condition tends also to be somewhat low on these items, it is significantly higher than the HHL condition in the defining of responsibilities and the giving of approval on the part of the administrator, and it tends to approach significance in the area of getting supplies. As was noted previously, the LLL condition in May now has significantly more open communication with the principal than does the HHL condition.

These materials point up the importance of the communication patterns within the school as they affect the morale and reactions of teachers. They also raise some problems about what kinds of intra-school communication conditions lend themselves to ready change, and about what conditions indicate a situation in the school less amenable to modification.

(2) School size and communication: In interpreting data about communication in social units like school buildings there seems to be a danger that differences which appear in the data related to personal or psychological variables may, in fact, be due to environmental or physical factors. In this case the question was raised whether the differences which were found related to communication patterns were actually due, at least in part, to the size of the school unit itself. With the schools divided into five categories according to size of faculties, comparisons were made on the three communication questions in February and the principal communication question in May. In all of the comparisons only one significant difference was found (p = .05), and this was between two non-adjacent categories in the May data. The data do not support a conclusion that the communication patterns, as measured in this study, are related to the size of the faculty in the building unit.

As an additional check related to the size of faculty, no significant differences were found among the schools, grouped according to their size, in either the average age of the principals or their average years of experience.

---

[2] The "t's" relating to significance of the change over time is the "t" of related measures. The hypothesis tested is that the difference between the first measure and the second is greater than 0.

School Size and Communication

Teacher Questionnaire		Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11	Communication with Principal 14	Average Age of Principals	Average Years of Experience As a Principal
		----- February -----			- May -		
A. School staff of 7-12 teachers (N = 8)	M	5.17	4.13	5.78	5.84	53.75	11.0
	SD	.82	.62	1.29	1.43		
B. School staff of 13-16 teachers (N = 10)	M	4.89	4.25	5.91	6.53	51.56	9.67
	SD	.55	.73	1.46	.81		
C. School staff of 17-21 teachers (N = 11)	M	5.14	4.48	6.02	6.20	53.36	14.64
	SD	.56	.58	.89	.91		
D. School staff of 22-28 teachers (N = 7)	M	4.75	3.93	5.19	5.58	54.86	19.29
	SD	.95	.63	.88	.80		
E. School staff of 29-41 teachers (N = 10)	M	4.59	4.20	5.73	6.15	52.00	15.0
	SD	.35	.49	.93	.79		
Differences							
BD	t				2.25*		
CD	t			1.76	1.83		

(3) The principal's working relations with the staff and communication: We have described earlier the relationships between communication patterns in the schools and the teachers' reactions. As defined, of course, the communication patterns were derived from teachers' ratings. In a study of this sort, it is difficult to go beyond the first level of comparison. Yet it is of much greater value, if the important processes of school administration are to be understood, to work through the data to findings which more clearly permit the development of theory which gives some fundamental understandings.

One such attempt is reported in Table XVII, pp. 142-43, where a second-level comparison was made. Inspection indicated that the communication categories were not identical with the categories of participation of the principal in the curriculum activities; that is, in certain of the high communication schools the principal was not an active participant in the curriculum activities, while in certain of the low communication schools he was. We ordinarily assume a very close relationship between communication and participation. What are the processes which come to light when we examine the exceptional cases?

We have taken only the high communication (HHH) and the low communication (LLL) schools reported previously, and have separated each of these categories according to the participation of the principal, whether he was "In" or "Out" (see description, p. 26).

Following our assumption that high participation and high communication appear together, and that variables related to them fall in the same relationship (with communication being the more important variable as found in the previously reported data), we posited that the categories would fall in this order:

High Communication, Principal In
High Communication, Principal Out
Low Communication, Principal In
Low Communication, Principal Out

Inspection of the data supports this hierarchy of relationship in the over-all pattern, particularly on certain variables such as the sense of togetherness,

for February. However, several specific exceptions to this pattern require further searching for the dynamics involved. The object of this search is not to understand specific differences but, instead, to discover a rationale which makes the most sense of all these data.

Let us examine first the pattern of communication which we find going along with the principals' participation. Category (B) high communication, principal out, is higher on the communication with principal (variable 11) than is the high communication, principal in, category (A). Yet we find the opposite in the teacher-teacher communication items (10a and 10b). The pattern of differences shows the Category (B) group to be somewhat more principal-centered, because of the lesser extent of communication between teachers while Category (A) is more group-centered.

A similar pattern is found between Categories (C) and (D): the low communication, principal in category has a pattern indicating more group-centeredness, while the low communication, principal out, category suggests more principal-centeredness.

It is interesting to note that the two categories representing the participation of the principal with the activities of his staff are designated as the group-centered categories. Does his absence from the group tend to force the teacher into a divided-loyalty situation--she is not sure whether to go along with the group or whether to attempt to discover what the principal wants regardless of what the groups says? In this condition the principal may, in fact, put himself in a position of having more effect on what actually develops in the faculty (or fails to develop because his lack of participation blocks them) than if he were a participant.

When we examine the results, this analysis may suggest which of the variables are more likely to be related to the group feeling of the faculty, and which may be more related to the principal-centeredness or the individual reaction of the teacher. For instance, the group-centered categories are higher on problem selection and general rating in February. They are each higher than their respective principal-centered categories (A greater than B, and C greater than D), on teachers' reaction to organization and sense of togetherness in February. This does not hold in May, however.

The more consistent pattern for Category (D) seems to be to hold the lowest position, particularly in the morale items of direction and progress. A faculty which has difficulty with inter-communication and which lacks the presence of the official leader would not seem to be in a very good position to determine its direction or measure its progress. Staff members apparently had some confidence in themselves, however, as this category is not found at the bottom on sense of contribution at any time. Did they believe that they were more capable, individually at least, than they were able to demonstrate or being given recognition for?

The other three categories fall close together on direction and progress in February. For these items of morale, either good communication within the group or the presence of an official leader to serve as the symbol in the initial stages of the activity seems to be essential. Note that in May, Category (C) ends up with the highest absolute value on direction!

Our values tend to make us believe that Category (A) is the most desirable under all conditions of work. Yet we find that in the data for May it does not maintain a leading position. Is the reason for this that other categories have more potential for improvement, because of somewhat lower initial scores and, in the time given, achieved the realistic maximum? It hardly seems likely that this was the case.

A more tenable hypothesis may relate to the previous level of experience of the faculty and the amount of change or improvement which they have noted. It may be that a school staff which is "normally" working at a high level of communication and with principal participation faces working problems at a more difficult or advanced level and consequently feels relatively little direction and progress as compared with its usual expectations and experience. The scores would not increase under this condition. A school, however, which moved from a condition of apathy, low communication, and unsatisfactory relations with the principal to a condition in which the faculty found it was able to make useful decisions for itself might feel marked satisfaction and increased morale. Yet, its true working level would still be considerably lower than that of the school mentioned above. It is one of the inadequacies of the type of measurement used in this study that it was not possible to determine any absolute zero point for the measuring instruments. This is rarely possible when the quality of feelings is being measured since feelings arise from the comparative experiences of the individual.

Summary

Certain elements of atmosphere which are inferred from the principal's behavior have some effect on the reactions of the teachers. This chapter also presented findings regarding relationships between the communication patterns in the school and the organizational procedures in the school to the teachers' measures of satisfaction. Summary

statements of the major findings are presented in Chapter VII.

The following chapter takes us into four different school situations to examine in greater detail how the elements which have been reported in this study appear in selected cases.

FOUR ILLUSTRATIVE CASES

In the previous chapters, findings came from the data gathered from all of the schools in this study. In order to give a clearer picture of some of the relationships and implications of this material, four school situations have been selected for detailed description. Each of these presents a distinct combination of circumstances, with different results appearing in the data.

It must be remembered that, in each case, material is derived from a single situation. These cases illustrate how many elements fit together, but no one case provides an appropriate basis for generalization.

Principal A

This person has been principal of School A for a limited number of years. It is a medium-sized school. The average teacher on the faculty has thirteen years' teaching experience and has taught in the same building for seven years. A few teachers, however, are quite new to teaching and to this building, while others have been there for many years.

Information about the nature of Principal A is drawn from the interpretation of the personality test:[1]

> She is a calm, unharried person who sincerely dedicates herself to the welfare and happiness of other people. She accepts people as they are. Although she values convention and precedent as guides to effective behavior, she does not judge herself or others in terms of any rigid set of standards. She is not afraid of criticism, and she is slow to criticize.

> Her guiding principle seems to be that positive effort is the greatest of human virtues. Her emphasis is on progress toward a better situation rather than on whether the present situation is good, bad, or indifferent. Thus, although she analyzes her circumstances carefully and in detail, the purpose of the analysis is to provide a basis on which to decide what improvements can be made. This would permit her to be happy under difficult circumstances because her attention is focused on improvement. By the same token, she would not be content under seemingly ideal circumstances because here her opportunity for progress would be more restricted.

> She is self-possessed and objective in a position of responsibility or authority. She finds it easy to make such decisions as are necessary, but she seeks the opinions of others when she can. She encourages group participation. Her greatest fault in this connection is that her self-assurance and adequacy may cause others to depend a little too heavily upon her for decisions. She tries to avoid such dependence but, in some cases, it probably is unavoidable.

A study of her responses on the Case Analysis Test (see description, p. 22) gives us additional help in understanding Principal A. Marginal notes have been added to suggest the emphasis implied by the various responses. Here is the detailed report:

---

[1]This interpretation and succeeding ones in this chapter of the Runner Personality Analysis Test were made by the staff of Runner Personnel Services, Mrs. Jessie Runner, Mr. Kenyon Runner, and Mrs. Helen Runner. The test profiles of each individual were examined critically, with no other knowledge of the case available.

This person was scored "A" on each of the four cases presented. She was one of two people in the entire group of principals who was so evaluated. Her primary attention was indicated as being on the building of relations between people rather than on administrative detail.

In order to get the flavor of her responses to the first case,[2] they are quoted in their entirety:

A. Specifically, what would you be likely to say to Miss Newton?

(expresses pleasure, acceptance, reward)

(shows identification with problem)

(shows awareness of entire field)

(shares decision about meeting time)
(reinforces together-ness)

"I am very glad you came in to talk with me this morning, Miss Newton. I know that you are eager always to get the best results in your classes and are earnest to do a good job. From my own teaching, I realize, too, that it is helpful to work in a class with leaders in the group. It is also difficult to schedule, to get in all the classes for all the children, so we can appreciate Miss Jones's job also. Let's plan to meet with Miss Jones so that we can plan together. I believe you both have free periods on Friday morning. Would that be a convenient time for you? Let's bring all of our data and work together on this."

B. What are some of the reasons why Miss Newton might raise this problem?

(accepts possible need for change)

"1. This situation may very well warrant change. There is a need to have leaders grouped in with other children.

(sees interpersonal feelings)

2. She may have resentful personal feelings toward Miss Jones.

(sees skill problem)

3. She may have an inability to adapt subject matter to meet individual differences.

(sees professional security problem)

4. She may feel difficulty and hesitancy in using varied materials, techniques, and approaches."

C. What action, if any, would you take?

(would study together)

"1. Would meet with both teachers to study records—may change some children if we can reschedule them.

(does in-service job casually if teachers are interested in help)

2. Would visit her classroom—may be able to interest her in varying techniques and materials—many texts—to meet the spread of ability.

(gives outside experience opportunity)

3. Later, would plan for her to visit in another school situation where the teacher joyfully works with slower children.

(meets security and approval needs)

4. Would praise her for what she does well."

---

[2]Case 1 - Miss Jones, a seventh grade teacher, has been given the responsibility of assigning boys and girls to various class sections. Miss Newton teaches some of these sections. She comes to your office and says, "My history class the third period has too many dull students. There shouldn't be that many in my class. I just can't make progress with so many of them to handle. Some of them should be assigned to another class section."

D. What do you think is a fundamental problem
in this situation?

"1. Mediation between two teachers.

2. Helping one (Miss Newton) especially to
grow, and to receive recognition, the same
as Miss Jones."

In her response to the questions about Case 2,[3] Principal A attempts to help
the teacher see a relationship between her subject and other learnings which might
be important to the children. She also attempts to let the teacher see that this
particular activity is city-wide, and that it would be unfair to the children in
a particular school to put pressures on them which were not used in other schools.

Interest and concern with the mental hygiene of the teacher is suggested by
her comments about the important issues which underlie the situation:

"This major emphasis upon her (Miss Arnold's) work shows both
emotional immaturity and tension. She needs hobbies and outside
interests. She needs to learn to be satisfied with her own day's
work and not continually to compare herself with others. She is
using forced classwork as her means of status. Praise, kindness,
understanding, and giving recognized responsibility will help."

That Principal A feels concerned with this kind of problem and does not see
herself as dealing casually with it is suggested by the rating that she would tend
to feel a rather large amount of difficulty in dealing with a similar situation.
She would likely give consideration to the problem and not respond to it with an
offhand answer.

Her sympathetic understanding of the teachers with whom she works as being
adult and her willingness to deal with the problems which are presented are both
implied by her responses to the third case.[4] Here is how she responded:

A. What are the implications of this difference
of opinion among your faculty about Mr. Yost?

(recognizes and
accepts individual
differences)

"There are individual differences in adults.
Some do feel more secure in being given a pattern
to follow. The others were ready to work dem-
ocratically, but evidences show (they) did not
get the opportunity. Mr. Yost was authoritative."

B. What things might have to happen in this situa-
tion before there would be staff participation in
policy-making?

(sees developmental
steps; plans for
growth)

"1. Working in small groups first.

2. Starting 'where they are'--maybe first by
planning a party or PTA open house, or
(discussion) how to spend tax (stamp) money.

---

[3]Case 2 - At a faculty meeting, eight teachers of your staff of forty say that they
object to releasing students from their classes so that the students might have religious
instruction outside the school. Miss Arnold says, "If any student of mine misses class,
he'll just have to make up the work. It doesn't matter whether it's religious instruction
or football practice. Anyone who misses class will just have to catch up." The decision
releasing time for religious instruction was made by the school board.

[4]Case 3 - You have just become principal of a school in which faculty meetings have
been used to tell teachers about school policy. You would like to have the teachers begin
to share in making some of the decisions about school policy. Some teachers have said to
you, "One thing we liked about Mr. Yost (the former principal) was the way he made deci-
sions. It saved a lot of time and prevented hard feelings among the faculty members to
have him tell us what the school policies were." Other teachers have told you, "Mr. Yost
didn't seem to trust us to make decisions. He always told us what should or should not be
done. He didn't seem to realize that we are professional people."

3. Change into informal type meeting--sitting in a circle, etc.

(works gradually at first)

4. Decide what committees we need--indicate on cards which they (the staff) would like to work on."

C. **What first steps would you take in a long-run course of action?**

(sees a variety of actions she can take)

"1. Get to know each teacher well.

2. Try to arrange for a teachers' meeting room where they can rest and relax.

3. Make lots of professional books and magazines available.

4. Make a survey of problems and interests as indicated in writing or conversation--this would be a basis for group study.

5. Start with matters of immediate concern-- luncheon, playground, etc."

D. **What policies, if any, would you feel the teachers should not participate in deciding?**

(is clear about boundaries of freedom and authority)

"Only those that have to do with city-wide practices and are decided by the board. Matters pertaining to the individual school are for the staff and principal to plan together."

It is interesting to note how clearly Principal A can state her ideas, and how many steps of action she can suggest. A simple answer does not appear adequate to her. She has many useful ideas which would contribute to improvement of the situation.

In her response to Case 4[5] the same qualities seem to appear again. She stresses the need to talk to the teacher about effectiveness with his class so that the scientific method will be used in the project. She has immediate suggestions of activities the students could carry out to tell about their experiments, as well as methods of protecting the individual farmer through the use of sealed envelopes in reporting results. She would also see this as an opportunity to find out from the farmers other ways in which the school can serve the community. She very quickly sees the broader implications and opportunities of such a project. She also senses the opportunity here to engage the students' interest in a meaningful life situation."

In February, the interviewer gave Principal A the following ratings as his estimate of how she would work with her teachers. Of the eight principals interviewed by him, this principal was rated as the most friendly and warm. She was seen as being somewhat more concerned with teacher growth than half of the principals he interviewed. She was not as likely to disregard the task at hand as were three other principals. Her focus of field was rated as being somewhat less self-centered than the average. Her use of power was more in the direction of releasing the working situation than toward controlling it. The interview itself was rated as being warm and friendly, but with this comment by the

---

[5]Case 4 - Your school is in a rural community. One noon, over lunch, the science teacher remarks to you, "My students are getting excited about something they've been doing for class. Maybe you've heard about it already. For a project, they've been testing water in a number of wells around here--at their own homes and at the neighbors' farms. It looks as if a lot of the wells are contaminated. It's surprising whose wells they are,

interviewer, "Not gushy-friendliness, but sincere interest in contributing effectively to (the) study."

Judging by the interview data, the school activities were set up through the participation of the teachers in discussion of the kinds of interests which they would like to develop. These talks were held at a meeting where teachers worked in small groups for a while, making a decision together about the subjects upon which they would focus. The principal indicated that the decisions were made by the "principal and teachers together, mostly teachers." Half of the teachers indicated that the decision was made by the principal and a select group of teachers, while about forty per cent believed that the teachers themselves made the decision. Only nine per cent, or two or three of the teachers, were of the opinion that the decision was made by the principal.

Asked what she was going to accomplish this year in the curriculum work, Principal A indicated that "most of all, more and more, we can work together in groups, and get a feeling of pooling information and skills." She was secondarily interested in developing a sound educational product, assuming that this would happen as professional people worked well together. The interviewer had the impression that she was very clear in her statements about her goals and purposes.

She was interested in this study because she thought that it would provide information about what she could do to be a better principal. She hoped that the findings would suggest the areas in which she needed to grow.

In February, the teachers seemed to be well satisfied with the problem areas which were selected for study. Morale was good, and School A was ranked high on all three communication items, indicating active communication among the teachers, as well as freedom to talk to the principal, about school problems.

In setting up the curriculum work, Principal A believed that the purpose of the study groups was primarily the promotion of teacher growth. She personally participated not only in the total staff groups but also in the small groups which were working in her school. Furthermore, she used outside resources. She made it clear, however, that the decisions for bringing about changes in the curriculum were to be made in the regular staff meetings. In these meetings she was willing to take a more active role than she considered appropriate in the curriculum groups themselves. Apparently she had clarified for herself the proper place for decision-making and the proper place for the learning activities of her school staff. The curriculum work was directed by a co-ordinating or planning committee, of which she was a member.

Asked at the end of the year what she thought had been accomplished, she said that there was a great improvement in the "groupness" of her staff. Certain teachers still felt some hesitancy about participating, but there had been a great increase in sharing. Staff members increasingly enjoyed each other. She was very clear in reporting what had

been accomplished in this regard. In speaking of the gains which her teachers as individuals made through their participation in the curriculum activities, she pointed out several changes: an increase in ideas, in the scope of professional understandings, in understanding of the children's work, and in willingness to take greater initiative in talking with parents. Principal A reported that the oldest teacher on the staff had become interested in improving her teaching techniques.

The two items checked as the most worthwhile results of curriculum study activities were: "more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff" and "greater willingness to really try out ideas in the classroom." The items checked as the least worthwhile goals were: "better selection of textbooks and teaching materials" and "greater community participation in curriculum planning."

In May, the morale of the teachers and their estimate of the value of the curriculum study placed School A in the top group of schools. These teachers also ranked their principal high on all five administrative practices.

When asked how the principal could be of more help to them, some teachers said, "I think our principal does everything possible to help." "I could not suggest any other (thing), as I feel our principal is very superior in this field." "She is excellent. Best we have had for several years." "I don't know how our principal can be of any more help in furthering the curriculum job."

Some teachers emphasized these statements by pointing out that the central office staff could be of help by not taking Principal A away from them.

Even though the general feelings of the teachers toward this principal were very favorable, these comments were made by two or three teachers: "It seems like (she) tried to be so tactful by giving favorable comment with criticism; why not just say what's wrong?" "Taking more time to discuss problems." "Asking from time to time how things are going." This last person also indicated that she felt it was hard to find an opportunity to talk with her principal. This response is quite contrary to those of the other teachers. She said, "Our principal is generally busy; I feel I am imposing if I want to talk something over--I also like to discuss things leisurely and not sit on the edge of the seat."

In the responses to the various questions presented, School A ranked consistently high. It was in the upper third of all the schools on all the items measured in both February and May. It was the only school in the entire study to make this record.

Principal A seems to represent a calm, mature, job-oriented but sensitive administrator. She has keen insight into the problems related to her job and considers both the tasks which are required and the people she must work with. Her sense of purpose and awareness of relationships permit her to work on problems with maximum effectiveness.

From all the evidence, this principal represents, perhaps as nearly as can be found,

the ideal principal. Her personal qualities, insight, relations with teachers, and general effectiveness appear to be of the highest. This kind of person comes to the job as the result of careful selection--she could not become the effective person she is simply through professional training programs.

Principal B

School B is also one in which the general reactions of the teachers compared very favorably with those found in other schools. It is a somewhat smaller school and its faculty, older on the average, has been teaching in this building for some years.

Principal B is described as follows from the analysis of the personality data:

> She feels an obligation to do her best at all times and is constantly aware of the danger--and the possibility--of doing something unwise. Although much of her motivation springs from fear of making mistakes, she is well enough acquainted with her responsibilities to make adequate plans.

> Her interests are highly social, and her feeling toward others is warm, sympathetic, and outgoing. She is well aware of her own faults and weaknesses, which undoubtedly helps to win the support and assistance of her associates. She tends to rely upon the judgment of others and probably looks to them for good ideas and encourages them to make their own decisions. She does not feel safe when she must make a decision alone. She keeps the policies of her superiors in mind, while keeping her finger on the pulse of the group with which she works. She needs to feel that she is an integral part of her group, and although she depends upon the group, she is equally gratified to know that others depend upon her. She is conscientious about serving them, about passing on information they should have, and about helping with their problems. In order to feel worthwhile, she must feel useful to her group. She is always aware of her inadequacies and constantly tries to be more useful and helpful.

> Although she is not imaginative, courageous, or confident of her abilities, her conscientious effort to keep things running smoothly and her excellent rapport with her associates would seem to create a good work atmosphere in her school.

> Her strength lies in her humility and in her readiness to accept the thinking of other people. Actually, she goes a bit too far at this point. She has too little faith in herself, and too naive a faith in others. She may be incapable of personally mediating a disagreement between subordinates when more discussion of the problem does not provide the answer. She avoids making decisions.

It would appear from this analysis that, in comparison with Principal A, here is a person who is somewhat inadequate in her own feelings as she works on the job, but who has been able, through appropriate use of her abilities and needs, to work quite satisfactorily in her job situation.

The report of her responses to the Case Analysis Test aids in understanding this principal:[6]

> This person was scored "C" on three of the cases and "B" on the fourth case in her responses to this test. Two of the cases were rated as being primarily administration-centered, whereas a third was rated as relations-building, and the last as problem-solving. In her response to the first case, she indicates that she would tell Miss Newton not to expect too much from her students but to keep them happy in school. She senses the following as some of the reasons Miss Newton might raise the problem: because of the personality conflict between the two teachers, a lack of understanding of individual differences, and fear of criticism of her teaching. "Fear of criticism from other teachers" was her only criticism of her teaching.

---

[6]As interpreted by D. H. Jenkins, in the capacity of research associate.

response under the question asking for the fundamental problem in this situation. Her attention to the fear problem here is different from the responses given by most principals.

Her hesitancy to make decisions is suggested by the fact that she would take action by getting all of the teachers together to work out this problem. This is in contrast with the more frequent response of simply getting Miss Jones and Miss Newton together. It may be that she so lacks direction for herself that she would feel unable to deal with one or two teachers alone but would tend to ask for the total group to cope with the problem.

In her response to the second case she indicates she would tell the teachers that they must abide by the ruling of the school board but that they could "present objections to the board members for their consideration." She would take no other action but would "encourage them to discuss their objections with board members." She seems to avoid accepting her position as an administrator who has certain interpretive functions between the school board and her teachers. This is somewhat odd in view of her statement that the important issues underlying the situation would be "subject-minded" teachers and religious intolerance. She implies that she sees the problem as being, at least in part, the attitude of the teacher. She seems unwilling to take any action herself to deal with this attitude.

In Case 3 she handles the implications question briefly with the statement: "personality conflicts." She suggests that the thing that might have to happen would be a study in "group dynamics." These seem to be very meager responses to the complications which are presented by this case. The only policies she feels teachers should not participate in deciding are "the office activities." She apparently overlooks the larger field in which the school exists, particularly that area related to over-all administrative policy.

For Case 4, she would take only one step as a result of the information received: "I believe I would discuss the findings with the superintendent." One wonders what the nature of this discussion would be and whether it would really be a search for assurance that the project was permissible. She would anticipate "a great deal of controversy" from the community. This may be because she thinks the students would "probably feel very important" in relation to their findings.

In general, these responses are quite inadequate for dealing with the problems presented. One does not get a sense, however, of strong blocks being placed around factors in the problem. Instead, indecision and vague feelings of fear of certain consequences seem present.

In both of these reports we find a repeated theme that one of the main driving forces of Principal B is her fear of criticism. The fear is so strong that she even projects it to the teachers and assumes that they, too, are fearful of being criticized. In some cases, of course, this is probably true.

The interviewer rated her high on the traits associated with philosophic-mindedness which were described earlier, implying that she takes an adequate approach in analyzing problems. On the items regarding her relations with her teachers, she was rated by the interviewer as being warm and friendly, primarily interested in teacher growth instead of concerned with the task at hand, non self-centered, and using her power to release the working situation. The interviewer made this comment: "She seems to be able to pick up controls at any time she feels it necessary, but evidently feels quite secure in a very informal and permissive atmosphere." The interview situation itself was rated as being friendly, with the following comment, "Just right--seemed to be sincerely friendly with just enough reserve to indicate a respect for the research study."

In the interview, the principal indicated that the decision about curriculum problems was made by the principal and teachers together. A group of the teachers also reported that this was the way the decision was made. A larger group of teachers, however, were of

the opinion that the decision was made by the teachers themselves.

Her hope for the curriculum work during the year was that the teachers "will keep on trying new ideas." She wants them to develop greater security in experimentation, a happier relationship with children, and a feeling of union with the community. She added this statement: "They should feel secure in knowing that the fundamentals are being taught." In conjunction with the desire she expressed for experimentation, this is a suggestive comment. It may well be that some of the teachers were afraid that the "new ideas" had interfered with basic learnings in the school. Her reassurance may allay their doubts about this matter. She reinforces this idea by saying that she believes the teachers hope to get "a feeling that they are able to do a good job." The responses to these questions about goals were clear and direct.

In getting the curriculum study under way, she saw the following problems:

"Getting it set up so the teachers do not feel that it is just something imposed from above.

How can I stay out of the mechanics of the thing—so I can be just one of the group?

How to get my own informal way of doing things into a formal statement which was required."

The last statement may reflect the request of the central office for a brief report of plans for curriculum activities during the year. In the first two comments she expresses concern again for developing a satisfactory relationship with teachers so that they can work together most effectively.

In February, the teachers in School B ranked first among all the schools in approving the problems which had been selected for curriculum work as well thought out and well selected. The teachers were not very clear about the goals, nor had they yet developed strong feelings of progress, but they were definitely of the opinion that they were "pulling together" on these activities. Communication among the teachers was adequate; in February this school ranked first in the freedom the teachers felt to talk to their principal.

In May, the teachers reacted in a similar fashion; morale remained high, and they expressed satisfaction with the curriculum work. Feelings of open communication with the principal dropped slightly, but the school still ranked in the high category. This principal was also given a high rating by her teachers on all of the administrative practices used in this study.

In responding to the question which asked how the principal could be of more help to them, the teachers commented most frequently in this vein: "Our principal is always ready to help in any way whenever you ask her." A few made the suggestion that they might have smaller groups in their curriculum work, but these were in the minority, and this in itself did not seem to be a criticism of the principal. No other comments listed could be considered critical.

In general, Principal B seems to be working in a most satisfactory manner in her school situation, so far as teachers and staff are concerned. While she does not feel as adequate or as secure as Principal A, she is willing to give much energy and thought to doing a satisfactory job in the role of principal. She is representative, in this respect of most administrators; each must face his own particular inadequacies and attempt to overcome them in order to do a good job.

If understanding of the real dynamics of school administration is to be improved, it is as important to know why difficult situations develop as it is to grasp the reasons why successful situations occur. Such appreciation is conducive of clear thinking about the kinds of actions necessary to effect the most productive and most useful school situations. For this reason, the following two cases are presented.

Principal C

School C is about the same size as School B, with a faculty of older teachers who have taught in the school on an average of almost twelve years.

Here is the description of Principal C drawn from the personality test:

She is watchful, critical, and resistant to change. She relies upon pre-cedent as a guide for activities. She judges ideas by whether they have been tried before and proved practical. She is firm in her beliefs, distrusts people who show signs of having different convictions, and is not open to suggestion. She thinks there is a right way to do everything. Systematic method is for her an end in itself.

She has little feeling of friendship for most people. She judges people in terms of her own standards of virtue, which are both rigid and unimaginative. She maintains control over her associates by rejection and criticism if they do not "toe the line." She has little warmth or sympathy except for those who are very close to her. She does not see her role as one of helper and co-ordinator; neither does she see it as that of directing or stimulating others. She does not relate herself to her associates. She simply occupies an office. Her function, as she sees it, is to maintain the status quo.

Although she is conscientious in her desire to do what is expected by higher authority, her ability to really see what is wanted is limited by rigorous conformity to old patterns of thought and behavior. Associates are likely to be afraid of her. She would not stimulate them to work out their own ideas. It seems likely that much of their effort would go into "playing things safe" in order to avoid criticism. It appears unlikely that much creative or progressive work would be done in her school.

The primary need of Principal C is assurance that she is right in all she does--that the conduct of her affairs is above reproach.

It is rather clear that she is "grasping at straws" in an effort to meet this need. She feels tense and socially ill at ease. Her mind is not free to enter-tain new ideas because she is so intent on finding satisfaction in the application of old ideas which she regards as correct and proper. Obviously, the old ideas aren't working. But her tendency is to feel that the fault lies in her methods of application or in the lack of sympathetic understanding of her associates. She does not entertain the possibility that the ideas themselves may be inappropriate in certain situations.

The following report of the Case Analysis Test aids in helping to understand Principal C:

This person was scored two "B's" and two "C's" for the four cases in this test. None of the cases was scored as showing an approach to building relations among the people concerned.

Her response to the first question under Case 1 suggests her approach to people. In response to Miss Newton she would say, "You, Miss Jones, and I [sic] will arrange for a conference, after ascertaining the facts, to talk this over." She personally would take action to investigate the situation. If it were found to be as Miss Newton suggested, "I would ask Miss Jones to reconsider." She seems to be quite willing to consider Miss Jones' position, and, once given the responsibility, she seems unwilling to take it from her. However, she is not agreed that this method of handling assignments of students is correct. The fundamental problem, as she sees it, is "assigning of the pupils by another teacher, instead of a head teacher or principal."

Her response to Case 2 suggests that she would ordinarily approach a problem in terms of the specifics of the task rather than in terms of the people involved. She would make no response at the faculty meeting to Miss Arnold but would arrange for a conference with her "to find out the amount of work to be made up by absentees." As issues she sees the teacher's concern about her class not completing the work and her personal opinion about the releasing of time.

For Case 3, the implications she saw about the difference of opinion among the faculty were: "not much thought had been given to school policies, and too much concern (had been given) about who should make them." The things which might happen in the situation, she thinks, would be: "The staff should feel that information which they as teachers possess about the situation is very helpful. They should be made to feel that the principal appreciates their help." To achieve these conditions she would organize a staff into small groups and "determine the needs of the school" from suggestions made by the members of each group.

In handling Case 4, she would take two steps: First, make sure the tests which the students made were accurate, and, second, pass the information on to the health and sanitation department. She would anticipate a mixed response from the community to this project, as well as that some students would become "egotistic," while others would feel that they had rendered a service.

One senses, in examining these responses, that she is dealing with necessary details as quickly as she can, but that she has not given attention to the essential elements for building an effective faculty for a productive school situation.

The interviewer received the impression that the interview situation itself was generally friendly. He says this: "I had the feeling that _____ was really a friendly and capable person but that she was concerned about giving the 'right' answers." He believed that her relations with the teachers would be somewhat more defensive than those of several of the other principals he interviewed, and that she might be more concerned with the tasks at hand than with teacher growth. Also, he thought she would be slightly more self-centered than the average principal he talked with and that she would be somewhat more likely to use her administrative power to regulate and control the situation.

Principal C, when asked how the curriculum study problems were selected, said: "I had the group decide." This was done by asking for suggestions and then having the teachers vote on the topic they preferred.

She named five teachers who were most interested in working on the curriculum problems and explained their interest by saying, "They are just that kind of individuals." According to her, the other teachers were so-so in interest. The main problem, as she saw it, getting the curriculum study under way was to find a suitable time for the teachers to meet. She gave no evidence of concern with such important problems in the development of the curriculum study as building relationships or attacking other tasks which needed to be done.

At the time of the February interviews, the morale of the teachers in this school was about average as compared with all the schools in the study. By May, however, the teachers' morale had fallen to a level which placed the school among the lowest of the group. The only area of morale in which it held up was in the teachers' feeling of togetherness.

The crucial condition in School C seems to revolve around the communication pattern. In February, there was high communication among the teachers in this school, but they did not feel free to talk with their principal. The communication pattern had not improved by May. The somewhat higher feeling of togetherness indicated by the staff in May is perhaps related to the communication pattern--they were feeling close together as teachers because of their common feelings of antagonism toward the principal. This theory is confirmed by the fact that on all five administrative practices, School C ranked low.

Some of the comments which teachers made when asked how the principal could be of more help to them are: "Listen more to my side of the story about the child." "Have free democratic discussions in teachers' meetings." "Taking classes while I visit other schools or other rooms."

There are no comments made on any of the questionnaires suggesting any warmth from the relationship, or much satisfaction although, one teacher goes so far as to say, "The principal has done her share in helping with most problems."

This principal's concern with being right and her generally critical attitude toward the staff seem to be defeating her effectiveness. It cannot be inferred from our data that she is not interested in trying to do a good job. She seems to be blocked in that direction by her own pattern of needs. She has been unable to gain the perspective and the security to be purposive and flexible in her behavior. Her tendency to be judgmental in her attitudes and her lack of easy warmth may stand in her way in developing satisfying relationships with her staff.

This is not a very encouraging picture, yet it seems to demonstrate some of the relationships which were discussed in more general terms in the earlier analyses of data.

Principal D

In the last case, a different pattern of difficulties is found. In School D the teachers average over twenty years of experience; they have taught in the same building an average of fifteen years. The school is larger than those discussed previously. The teachers, in both February and May, were low in morale and in their reactions to the curriculum study than were most of the other school staffs.

Here is the report on Principal D as drawn from the personality test:

He meets the world only on his own terms, and apparently he is finding that there aren't many people who will accept him on this basis. His reaction to opposition is aggressive and resentful.

He finds it extremely difficult to accept the restrictions of group participation. He makes decisions independently, and he is inclined to regard as stupid anyone who does not agree with them or who does not understand them.

Probably he is a person of superior intelligence. Certainly he conceives of himself as one. He is inclined to believe that his own thinking is perfectly adequate, and it is therefore not worth his trouble to try to understand another point of view.

He is not interested in people generally. He prefers to confine his associations to a small group of selected friends. He finds his greatest satisfaction in working alone at some skilled manual activity. Probably he has some inventive genius.

These comments are supported by the responses that Principal D made to the Case Analysis Test.

This person received a rating of "C" on each of the four cases in this test. This was the lowest possible rating under the method used. The rater's comments on the scoring sheet were as follows: "Has flat rules--not responding to the case"; "denies responsibility of the administrator"; "shows insubordination to the school board also."

Some responses under Case 1 were these: "I would tell her that I would regroup the pupils immediately." Assigning the pupils to groups is the duty of the principal." In response to the question, "What action, if any, would you take?" he said, "This situation would not arise. I would assign the pupils to groups on the basis of ability. I do not believe in heterogeneous grouping." His analysis of the fundamental problem in this situation was "weakness on the part of the principal."

It seems that he was responding to his rules rather than to the case as presented. He completely ignored Miss Jones in this picture and took the whole situation out of her hands. His last comment states his belief that "a principal must be strong."

In analyzing the second case about the teachers' reaction to students missing classes for religious instruction, he indicated that he would make no response to Miss Arnold at the meeting "because I would be in complete agreement with her." Neither would he do anything after the meeting, nor would he go to the school board meeting. He says that the important issue is "the weakness of the board of education in passing a measure." Apparently he would intend to act only on the basis of what he thought was correct. It sounds as though he would be quite willing to disregard anything which happened at the level of the school board or the administration, and, if necessary, would encourage insubordination on the part of his teachers in the effort to support his ideas.

His responses to Case 3 illustrate his "pat answers." He sees none of the implications arising from the difference of opinion among the faculty, but simply labels it "a natural situation. You will always find pros and cons in a case of this kind." In answer to the second question, which asks what should happen in this situation, he indicates the need for a faculty meeting in which "the principal would explain that there were situations in which he felt he could safely make the decisions--others in which he felt the faculty should be consulted" (sic). Policies which he thought the faculty should not participate in deciding were "those requiring quick decisions, those arrived at by principal and superiors, and matters minor enough not to cause discussion."

In response to Case 4, when asked what he would do about the results of the testing, he proposes that he would immediately take action himself: "I would first ascertain if the test was carried out scientifically and the results were accurate." He ignores from the start both the teacher and the students in his school, and their possible relationship to the whole project. The reaction he might expect from the community, he says, "Would depend on handling by the principal. The County Health agent might be consulted and the matter handled with tact and diplomacy." Here, again, he sees himself as the prime mover and determiner of the reaction. He makes no estimate of how the community's feeling might develop. When asked how the students might feel about the findings, he says, "There might be a few cases of ill feeling, but in general the study should be beneficial to the community." One wonders why he would anticipate that the students themselves would have ill feelings about the findings. He completely overlooks the morale factors in the classroom which were mentioned in one way or another in many of the responses to the question.

Throughout all of his responses, he gave no attention to building relations among the people with whom he worked, nor did he take into consideration their attitudes and feelings. He seemed to be completely self-concerned, responding unimaginatively only to what he thought should be done and carrying out the action himself.

The rating given the interview situation by the interviewer indicates a somewhat defensive attitude on the part of the principal. The note says, "Very careful in making responses." The interviewer had the impression that the principal's relations with teachers would be somewhat hostile and defensive in character, that he would be interested chiefly in the tasks to be done, that he would be concerned primarily about himself, and that he would exert complete control over the situation at hand.

When asked about the curriculum study activities, Principal D showed that he had not paid much attention to what had been going on. He says, "I let them make the selection [of the problem]." His responses during the interviews were relatively meager, a circumstance which seems to support his statement that he had not been closely related to the curriculum activities. He hoped that the curriculum activities they were carrying on would result in "better behavior of the pupils outside of school and mainly to and from school." His ranking on the philosophic-mindedness categories was low.

When asked how the central office might be of help to him, his quick response was: "Let me alone." He then went on to make three or four specific suggestions, each of which involved major policy changes affecting the entire school system. His idea of the teachers' responsibilities in curriculum development was that they should "recommend to me anything whatever."

The organization for curriculum development in School D consisted of three groups which had no responsibility for decisions or recommendations for learning. The principal did not participate in any of the groups, nor were outsiders used as resource persons. He indicated that the activities of these groups were not reported to other groups or to the total staff, but simply included in a report to the principal at the end of the year. There was no committee to co-ordinate or plan the activities. He gave only a vague response to the question about what benefits the teachers had received as a result of participation in the curriculum study activities. His reply to the question asking what he wished he had done differently at the end of the year was: "A person can't answer that—there isn't anything—I just let it develop mostly."

Some teachers' comments about how the principal could be of more help to them were as follows: "Allowing for changes as found by research." "Swing a little more authority in the face of the children." "Do more than bookkeeping." "I feel there is a vagueness about the aims to be accomplished and how we are to profit by the results."

When asked how the central office staff could be of more help, one teacher said: "Be a little more definite in what they expect. All we heard was rumors about the study. Send a representative to give a pep talk." Comments of this sort suggest that there was very inadequate communication between the central office and the teachers. One wonders whether this breakdown of communication was in the principal's office.

Some difficulty was encountered in administering the questionnaires to the teachers

in School D. They were extremely uneasy about entering their names on the file cards which accompanied the questionnaires for fear that their answers would be identified. Almost fifty per cent of the teachers failed to enter their names. Nearly half of them left blank the space allotted to answering the question about how the principal could be of more help to them.

The teachers behaved similarly when final data were gathered in May. Again, many of them failed to give their names and left numerous questions unanswered or incompletely answered. A few comments indicated that a major problem of the curriculum activity had been the lack of leadership in the local staff and the failure to use outside resources. This faculty's rating of the curriculum study activities was lower than that made by the teachers in any other school.

Principal D was ranked low on all five of the administrative practices. His staff's judgment about his giving approval to them placed him next to the bottom among the entire group of principals on this item.

There seems relatively little in this description to suggest that Principal D would be able to develop an effective faculty group. His concept of himself and his major sources of satisfaction do not point in that direction. He will control the situation and define it on his own terms. He would make few attempts to adjust to the needs of his faculty. Consequently, we find low morale.

Judged by the data at hand, the difficulties encountered in the school situation apparently stem directly from the administrator's behavior.

Training Possibilities

The essential purpose of the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration is to improve the training of school administrators. With this end in mind, the specialists who wrote the personality analyses were asked to make suggestions for the future training of the persons under examination.

With Principal A there seemed to be no training problem. She was seen as working at a high level of effectiveness, and whatever further training might be useful would simply be a general extension of present practice. There seemed to be no blocks in her make-up which would prevent her from using any situation for her own professional growth.

In the case of Principal B, who was working effectively at some cost to herself, here is what the report says:

> If formal training is to be valuable to her, it might give her a feeling of assurance that there are some simple, definite techniques by which to understand people--techniques which permit some clear decisions as to what she can do to help these people. She needs success experience in making decisions affecting the behavior of other people--experience in which she clearly assumes the dominate role. At present, she is too much afraid that she will force something on someone that will result in expressions of hostility toward her. She might benefit particularly from seeing that indecision and inaction can produce more hostility than would result if definite steps were taken to solve a difficult problem.

From this report it seems that, if given the proper help, Principal B could materially improve her already high level of effectiveness with the staff.

Principal C presents a somewhat different story:

> The goal of training would be to broaden her horizons by helping her to think more in terms of situations and less in terms of univeral principles. She might profit especially from training in which a variety of well-defined situations are presented, and in which she is called upon to show how the approach must be modified in order to answer the requirements of each. It probably would do little good to tell her what she should do. She needs to think it out. There is every evidence that she can do this if she is reasonably sure that such thinking can produce the right answers.

The training problem here would seem to be more difficult, but none the less, if progress could be made, it would probably lead to definite improvement in what is now a rather unhappy situation.

Less optimism seems warranted for Principal D.

> This person seems quite sure that his analysis of a situation is as good as anyone's. He evidences little feeling of need to change his own thinking, and he shows great need to force his thinking on anyone who may disagree with him. These attitudes do not bode well for training.

> The goal of training would be to lead him to feel that he does not have all the answers, and that acceptance of others' thinking is essential to reaching some new answers. Until he feels that he can accept ideas which come from other people, formal training is a waste of time.

> It is clear that he feels at war with some of his present associates. He feels that they are trying to "shove things down his throat," and he is intensely rebellious about it. The first step in effective training would be to assure him that he is free to think and do as he pleases. Since it is probably not practical to take the steps necessary to give him this assurance, again it seems that the training would be extremely difficult.

A real question in this case is whether any useful training is possible. The answer seems to be in the negative. To emphasize in-service training in this instance would probably be a profitless use of time and energy.

Summary

The four cases presented here briefly illustrate in actual school situations the complexity of the problem of administrative behavior and its effect on teachers. While each school differs in major respects, the schools where A and B are principals are functioning in a comparatively satisfactory manner whereas the schools where C and D are principals present problems which are being handled less successfully. In each of these cases there is a fairly clear relationship between the qualities and behavior of the administrator and the behavior and reactions found among his teachers. It is easy, when thinking in general terms about an area such as school administration, to overlook the fact that the individual administrator is a person who has his own pattern of needs, wants, and behavior. But it is the specific qualities of the particular person, as found in the cases discussed in this chapter, which have to be understood and worked with if school administration is to be improved.
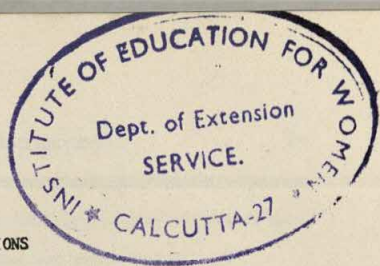
CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In the previous chapters we have presented the findings of this study in detail, including some illustrative cases. In this chapter some of the major findings are summarized briefly. We will give attention in the following chapter to their implications for improvement of the selection and training of school administrators.

General Summary

I. The Qualities of the Administrator

A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

1. No marked relationships appeared between the age, the years of experience, or the recency of graduate work and the effectiveness of the administrator. The single exception to this statement was a group of principals who had been principals less than five years and who were under forty years of age. On the average this group was rated more highly on certain variables by the teachers than were the older, more experienced principals. The younger group's superiority in administrative practices was obvious, according to the ratings. These findings give the impression that the differences which appear here may have resulted either from a rather recent change in policies and procedures for selecting elementary-school principals or from the different type of training the younger principals had received. Another interpretation is that after a principal reaches approximately the age of forty, his effectiveness decreases. This theory hardly seems tenable, since there were principals older than forty in this study who were given high ratings. In any case our findings do not support a common assumption that the older, more experienced person will be more effective solely because he is older and more experienced.

2. No difference is found on the basis of these data, between men and women in their effectiveness in administrative roles.

B. Intellectual Processes

Although no single difference was statistically significant, the pattern of numerical differences which occurred consistently supported the theory that the administrator will be judged effective by his teacher to the degree that he is comprehensive, penetrating, and flexible in his thinking. Further work in this area of analysis might be very profitable.

C. Motivational-Emotional Processes and Conditions

1. Principals who were participating actively with their staffs in curriculum activities, both in small group activity and in total staff work, appeared, from the general pattern of the data to be less anti-democratic (F-Scale) than the principals who were

73

working with the total staff group only. Those who were not participating in the curric-
ulum activities fell between the two groups on the average.

2. Teachers under the less anti-democratic principals showed significantly
greater satisfaction with the way the curriculum study was organized. The less anti-
democratic principals also seemed more likely to communicate necessary information to
their teachers than did the more anti-democratic principals.

3. Principals who were rated low in problem-solving ability (Case Analysis Test)
exhibited more emotionality, resentment, and hostility, and were more given to projecting
blame for their difficulties on to other people or the situation, and were less likely to
accept responsibility for a problem (Personality Analysis Test), than were the principals
who rated high in problem-solving ability.

4. The principals who were rated by the interviewers as likely to use their power
to control the situation appeared, on the personality test, to be repressed, conservative,
tradition-oriented; to believe in authority as being necessary and "right"; to be suspi-
cious and hostile, not trusting others to take responsibility; to find it difficult to
make decisions but, once having made them, to be likely to abide by them rigidly.

The principals rated as using their power to release the situation appeared on the
personality test to be impulsive, optimistic, and sensitive to the present; to be generally
warm and co-operative; to like people as individuals and resist going against their wishes;
to be neither blameful nor hostile; to be neither particularly forceful nor rigid.

5. Principals who were in schools where there was high communication (where teach-
ers communicated actively with each other and felt free to communicate with the principal)
showed these major elements in their personality profiles: desire for freedom, courage to
follow their beliefs and a spirit of encouragement to others to do likewise; lack of con-
cern with structure but interest in interaction; responsiveness to the current needs rather
than to the dictates of tradition; a comparative disregard of detail; a desire for commun-
ication from others, acceptance of others which precluded the need for building a staff
group; warmth instead of self-defensiveness, suspicion or hostility.

Principals in schools where there was low communication appeared to be: concerned
with structure, not with interaction; oriented toward tradition and dogmatism; defensive,
and unable to accept criticism; unconcerned with people as human beings, concerned more
with the task at hand; unable to accept themselves or to accept the errors of others; some-
what moralistic, rigid; concerned with records and details.

Principals of schools in which there was easy communication with the principal but
low communication among the teachers tended to lack personal conviction, to be "weak,"
passive; to initiate communication with others in order to get a feeling of purpose for
themselves; to be neither defensive nor aggressive but apathetic, habitually seeking to
escape trouble.

Principals in schools where there was high communication among the teachers, but

low communication with the principal were not alike, but each in his own way presented blocks to communication through irritability, rigidity, hostility, criticalness, or weakness.

6. Principals who were ranked highest on administrative practices by their teachers appeared to be analytical, not blocked by emotions; purposeful and perceptive; broad enough in outlook to consider the entire field in their planning; receptive to ideas; sensitive to method, while using it as a means, and to the obligations of their job; willing to accept the responsibilities of their work; free from a need for attention or for shifting blame; acceptant of others in a matter-of-fact way, with self-assurance and without hostility.

II. The Behavior of the Administrator

A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

1. Contrary to expectation, teachers tended to give higher ratings on items dealing with curriculum study and morale to principals who were judged to be administrative-centered in their approach to planning than to those who were more interested in fostering good relations. The reverse was true when the items involving administrative practices were examined.

2. When an over-all rating was assigned to the responses on the Case Analysis Test, it was found that teachers in schools whose principals were rated low—on the basis of stereotyped, judgmental, or superficial answers—gave evidence of greater satisfaction and higher morale than did those in schools whose principals were assigned to the middle category, rated as neither analytical nor superficial.

B. Behavior with the Faculty

1. Staff atmosphere:

a. The principals who were rated as creating a warm and friendly atmosphere in the school were likely to get satisfactory reactions from the staff.

b. The principals who were rated as giving some attention to the tasks at hand while putting greater emphasis on teacher growth had teachers who showed somewhat higher morale and more satisfaction with the curriculum work than did those principals rated as giving attention primarily to teacher growth. The principals rated as giving attention primarily to the tasks at hand ranked as least effective.

c. There is some tendency for the principals who were rated less self-centered, or not self-centered, to appear to be more effective than the principals rated as self-centered.

d. The principals who were rated as likely to control the situation appear to be somewhat less effective than those likely to release the situation.

In all of these ratings the principals who occupied the middle ground appeared to be more effective than those at either extreme. For example, preoccupation with teacher growth to the exclusion of the tasks at hand may lead to serious difficulties. This finding suggests that there is an optimum position between the two poles.

2. Procedures and processes used by the administrator:

a. As determined by the reactions of teachers, no particular method by which a faculty group reaches decisions is superior to any other. At the end of the working year, schools in which there was general agreement that the decisions had been made by the teachers and the principal together ranked lowest among the groups on five of the six ratings of satisfaction and morale.

b. There was no relationship between the way in which the faculty was organized for the curriculum studies and the reactions of the teachers. This was equally true whether they were working in small or large, or in grade or interests, groups.

    c. There were no relationships between the pattern of participation of the principal in the curriculum activities and the reactions of the teachers.

    d. Principals who were ranked consistently high by their teachers on all five administrative practices (getting supplies, supplying information, defining responsibilities, giving approval, and establishing easy communication between themselves and their teachers) were in schools which, on the average, were significantly higher in teacher morale and in teacher satisfaction with the curriculum work than were those schools in which the principals were ranked consistently low on these items.

    e. Teachers in faculties which were highly concerned with staff relationships as a part of curriculum work indicated that significantly less approval was given them by the administrator than was given in schools where, according to the responses, relatively little concern was shown about staff relationships.

    f. Schools in which there was high communication gave evidence of consistently higher morale and greater teacher satisfaction than schools in which there was low communication.

    g. Schools in which there was low communication made significant improvement between February and May in their morale (except for one scale, sense of contribution, $p = .15$) and in their reactions to the organization and to the curriculum work as a whole. The greatest improvement which took place was a significant change for the better in ease with which they found it possible to talk with the principal.

    Schools in which the communication pattern was mixed (high among teachers, closed to principal; or low among teachers, open to principal) made no significant improvements. The schools high in communication gave significantly higher general ratings to the curriculum study.

    h. On the whole, there was the lowest morale (except for sense of contribution) in schools where communication was low and the principal was not participating in the curriculum activities.

General Observations

From one point of view the findings in this study may appear to be disappointing. Because of the general exploratory nature of the investigation, a great many of the statistical comparisons did not show significant differences. Whether this is truly disappointing depends, of course, on the questions one asks of the data and the assumptions one makes about the true condition.

For example, it is a fairly common supposition that the more mature and experienced the administrator, the more effective he will be. Or, again, it is often theorized that a woman is better equipped than a man to fill a position such as that of elementary-school principal. Neither of these assumptions is supported by this study; the differences in the data were not significant.

A third assumption often made is that persons who have democratic attitudes will be effective administrators. Frequently, as in this study, the measure of such attitudes is agreement with democratic statements or a personal declaration of democracy. We were able to find almost no significant relationships between verbalization of democratic attitudes and effectiveness among the administrators in the study. The relationships between what one professes, what he actually does, and what effects his actions have, are apparently not simple ones. And the matter is further complicated by human inconsistency.

It is often taken for granted that the more of a good thing, the better. By way of illustration, selflessness would appear to be a quality with which no one could be too generously endowed. Translated into terms of the administrator, this would mean that ideally he would be primarily concerned with the growth of his staff or be totally permissive. Our findings here suggest that this is not necessarily so. The person who has

moved to the extreme position on such values may be less effective than one who has estab-
lished an intermediate status.

The pattern of personal needs of the administrator was found to be important in de-
termining what sort of influence he would have on the school. This relationship was par-
ticularly clear in connection with the communication pattern. We know from this study and
from other research (8, 15, 16, 19, 29, 32, 34) that the type of communication which exists
in a group is one of the more important variables in determining how that group will work.

We also found a relationship between the pattern of the administrator's needs and his
performance, as judged by teachers, in carrying out certain administrative practices.
These practices themselves were found to be directly associated, to the degree to which
they were effectively performed, with the teachers' general morale and satisfaction.

There is, then, a continuing thread of relationships extending from the personal
needs of the administrator, as shown by his personality, through the way he plans and car-
ries out administrative practices and through the communication pattern he develops in the
school, to the general reactions of his staff. This is the major finding of the study.

Theoretical Results

Let us now review the hypotheses outlined in Chapter II to see what parts of the
theory developed there are supported by the data of this study.

A. **The Qualities of the Administrator Affect His Planning and Problem-solving
Behavior**

The results related to this major hypothesis of the study are meager. Some degree
of relationship existed between the emotional make-up of the principal and his ability to
solve problems. There was only limited success in determining the nature of this rela-
tionship by the Case Analysis Test, one measure of problem-solving behavior, although fur-
ther testing with alternative scoring methods and validation might bring out the promise
this device seems to offer. The interview data which were to be scored for planning be-
havior were too inadequate for use. The responses given by the administrators were not suf-
ficient to permit them to be scaled or categorized in any satisfactory fashion. The impres-
sion gained from some of the data, when examined clinically, is that this problem is well
worth further exploration with improved methodology and more clearly delimited hypotheses.

B. **The Qualities of the Administrator Affect the Processes and Procedures He
Uses with the Staff and the Atmosphere He Creates with the Staff**

There is ample support for this hypothesis. We find relationships between the
administrator's personality and his administrative practices, the communication patterns
in his school, and the atmosphere he is likely to establish in the school.

For practical training problems as well as for theoretical problems, it would be
useful, however, to explore specific situations to find out what particular qualities of
the administrator will affect what procedures he uses or sets up. Further examination is
imperative if the functions of the administrator are to be precisely understood.

C. The Administrator's Planning and Problem-solving Behavior Affect the
    Procedures and Processes He Uses with the Staff

Because of the problems involved in measurement and analysis, it was not possible

to develop the data intended to test this hypothesis directly. Indirectly, it was sug-

gested that the planning and problem-solving behavior of the administrator may have some

measurable effect upon the reactions of the teachers. Improvement in measurement tech-

nique might make more profitable exploration of this important area possible.

D. The Procedures and Processes the Administrator Uses and the Atmosphere He
    Creates Affect the Teachers' Behavior and Their Reactions

Considerable data were secured for this general hypothesis. For example, the

communication pattern which exists in the school, which we found to be related to the ad-

ministrator's needs, does relate to teachers' reactions. Similarly, the kinds of adminis-

trative practices which the administrator performs are materially related to the teachers'

reactions in the school. However, decision-making procedures, participation of the prin-

cipal with his faculty, small or large group work, etc., seem to make no significant dif-

ference in the teachers' reactions.

It was not possible within the practical limitations of this study to develop findings

related to all the hypotheses outlined in the second chapter. Their presentation in

Chapter II supplied a framework of thinking within which this particular research was

carried forward. As previously noted, the data do, in general, give validity to the gen-

eral theoretical framework. At the same time they point up a need for more specific def-

inition within each of the major hypotheses to indicate which relationships hold in which

ways for which particular factors.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPLICATIONS

It has been indicated that a central purpose of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration is to improve the effectiveness of school administrators. This study was carried out as a part of that program. Let us examine what implications this investigation, either through its basic framework or through its findings, has for school administrators and their training.

Three areas are relevant: (1) the selection of school administrators; (2) the pre-service preparation; and (3) the in-service supervision and training programs.

Implications for Selection

Selection, for our purposes, involve finding the type of person who, when given the specific training to the degree that it is available, will become an effective school administrator. In the framework of this study, the problem of selection arises from the area defined as "the qualities of the administrator," to the extent that certain qualities are inherent and cannot be developed through training alone.

It has been impractical in most instances to exert selection controls at the colleges or universities which give specialized training to graduate students in school administration. It has been their responsibility to give their students the best preparation at their command for the position they expect them to hold. This procedure may be based on the assumption that anyone who can do the necessary graduate work is capable of being a more or less effective school administrator. An alternative assumption is that, no matter what capacities and experience the student brings to his graduate work, it will be possible, through training, to make him a reasonably effective administrator.

In the light of the data uncovered, neither of these assumptions seems warranted. It is clear from this study that the personal needs and drives of the person holding an administrative position in a school greatly influence his effectiveness in that role. Also, it seems unlikely, from what we know of personality, that an adult is able to make radical changes in his own personal dynamics. Therefore, training at the graduate level cannot per se make all the changes which may be necessary in certain cases for effective performance.

Selection procedures for school administration training should include specific and thoughtful attention to the personality of the trainee. The personality must be appropriate to the demands of the role which the trainee will eventually fill. The personal needs must not be such that they prevent continuous professional training and growth (individual change).

There is no evidence in this study that verbalized democratic attitudes are positively related to effective administration. Therefore, the use of verbalized attitudes as a

79

Attitudes toward democracy: Much time is often devoted in course work in colleges of education to discussing democratic administration of the school. Many high-sounding things are said about this phenomenon. Students are frequently asked to respond on tests indicating their philosophy. However, this study fails to show that those who show favorable attitudes toward democratic ideas when they are verbalized are any more effective than those who express opposite attitudes.

The implication of this finding is that it may be less than worth while to spend time and energy at the pre-service training level in paying lip service to democratic administration. At the very least, the proportion of verbalization about democratic administration to actual democratic performance needs to be greatly reduced. Students often find themselves the victims of a non-democratic set up in their classrooms at the very time they are hearing generalities preached about democracy. Performance is likely to win out. If we are truly concerned about democratic administration on the job itself, it is essential to supply the student with the kind of day-to-day situation in which he can observe in the practice of others, and himself practice, the immediate habits of living which represent the values and result in the goals included under a concept of democracy (26).

Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

Several attempts were made in this study to explore the effectiveness of the planning and problem-solving behavior of administrators studied. None of these attempts produced satisfactory results. The impression was gained that the failure resulted in part from the principals' inability in most cases to state clearly either their own goals or the goals which they had for their teachers. In analyzing a case, they failed to consider important factors which were presented to them. They gave stereotyped responses and clichés, only rarely offering what seemed to be a penetrating, insightful response. These general weaknesses were the more marked because of the contrast presented by the very few cases (Principal A, Chapter VI, is an example) in which insight and clear understanding was demonstrated in the responses. Examination of these materials indicates a need to train the potential school administrator in how to go about analyzing and solving the problems with which he has to deal. He needs help in cultivating the ability to diagnose the situation with which he is concerned, and in which his own behavior and role are involved. He needs to know that "having a conference" does not solve every problem.

In the course of graduate education, there are a multitude of opportunities for carrying on this kind of training. One contribution which the case method can make to graduate training is in pointing up the need for analyzing and diagnosing a situation and doing some creative thinking about how to meet it. Perhaps the best test of whether a person is really informed professionally is whether he can apply what he has learned in a problem-solving situation. Instead of taking tests on multiple choice or objective items,

perhaps students would profit more by being asked to solve a problem which required the application of relevant information and the use of suitable techniques. Certainly the problem of grading examinations might be increased, unless one wished to augment the learning situation by asking students to judge each others' papers and write criticisms of the planning. This might be an additional teaching opportunity.

Procedures and Processes Used by the Administrator

Decision-making, organization, and participation

Much has been written in the field of educational administration on the importance to the administrator's effectiveness of involving teachers in the process of making decisions about school problems. There has been a similar emphasis on the theme that staff work is most effectively done by small groups working on problems either of common interest or of common appropriateness to grade level. A third dictum is that the most effective staff work is accomplished only when the principal works along with his staff (3). So far as the data of this study are concerned, none of these three procedures guarantees satisfactory staff work.

Whether the principal makes a decision, whether the teachers make a decision, or whether the principal and teachers make the decision together, has no effect in and of itself on teacher satisfaction and teacher moral as measured in this study.

Undoubtedly, different administrators and teachers meant different things when they reported on the decision-making process. The basic confusion resulting from divergent interpretations of the decision-making process itself poses a training problem. For some it may be seen as a specific technique--if teachers vote on something, then the teachers are deciding. In fact, this may not be true--they may simply be giving formal approval in an atmosphere where they are not really free to disapprove. Before we can promote a single way of decision-making as being most desirable, even if that were capable of definition, it is imperative that a common ground of understanding be secured concerning the processes involved in the relationships among persons who are attempting to reach decisions together. This is equally required if we are to understand effective organization and effective participation of the principal with his staff (33).

If these represent important concerns in the area of school administration, then the training which is required for the school administrator is a greatly increased understanding of the working relationships he has with his staff group. The laboratory in human relations and group development mentioned earlier is a program in which this training can be secured. It is here that problems of group decision-making are faced in fact as well as in theory--it is in this kind of training setting that attention is focused on important realities of staff relationships. Something more than talking about what a good administrator should do is required.

Administrative practices

Definite relationships were found between the administrative practices examined in this study and the teachers' reactions. The data, of course, were based on the judgments of the teacher.

The five areas which were examined--getting supplies, furnishing information, defining responsibilities, giving approval, and establishing open communication with the principal--are all areas in which training would be likely to result in improvement. Each of these practices warrants the specific attention of the administrator in his work. Improved methods of handling supplies, giving information, etc., may be useful in correcting a particular local problem.

Apart from the specific methods, however, the fact must be taken into account that each of these practices affects, and is affected by, the personal relationships which exist between the principal and his teachers. For example, two principals who have the same problem of getting supplies may be judged quite differently by their teachers. In one case the teachers may feel that the principal is doing all he can to help them, and they accept with appreciation and understanding what he is able to accomplish. In another situation, the teachers may feel that the administrator is deliberately withholding supplies, or that he is not interested in their problems and is refusing to co-operate. The personal attitude of the principal and his ability to explain the problems he faces are important in determining the teachers' perceptions. Training would help him to gain a knowledge of the processes involved in the successful conduct of human relations and show him how to work with teachers so that they could reach a sympathetic understanding of his situation (17).

In like fashion this point holds for the other items: the principal must not only have the intent to supply all necessary information to his teachers but he must communicate his intent to them; he must take action to define responsibilities and abide by his decisions; and he must give approval if he is to be seen as approving, for otherwise his teachers will not understand what his purposes are.

Communication

Special attention should be given to the problem of communication with the teachers. The extensive work which has been done in the development and use of interview techniques (28) should be useful in promoting satisfactory conference relationships with teachers. An administrator can be taught how to improve his ability to listen to his teachers, how to ask useful questions, and how to understand teachers in the interview situation. Training of this sort would undoubtedly improve ease of communication between teacher and principal.

Another implication for training is the existing need to help the administrator understand the importance of the communication processes in his school and increase his

skill in determining what communication patterns exist there and how they can be modified. If faulty, they may be symptomatic of other problems in the school which warrant prior attention (32).

All of these areas reconverge on the administrator's concern with the relationships he has with his teachers. All of them give testimony to the importance of training him to understand his own behavior and its influence on his staff.

The major implication of this study for the pre-service program is that the potential school administrator needs to have sufficient understanding and training in human relations to enable him to work effectively in the school setting. This includes understanding of himself as an operating person, of his relationships with other persons, and of the general processes of group life as he finds it in the school staff (4, 14).

In-service Training

We have discussed some of the implications of the major findings of this study for pre-service training. An in-service training program would seem to be invaluable along these same lines. Active school administrators who have not had any previous training in the areas indicated could make profitable use of learning experiences similar to the kinds suggested as valuable in pre-service training. Summer workshops in human relations training, periodical workshops during the school year, or similar programs, could be developed. The advantage offered by the in-service program in this area is that it provides the participants with a personal experience in the job situation upon which they can build in improving their own effectiveness. Those who supervise the principals in the in-service training role serve a function equal in importance to that of pre-service supervisors, according to the findings of this study. For example, as the central office personnel gained more understanding of the persons holding administrative positions in their respective schools they could orient their own work with each of them to eliminate particular weakness, helping each to understand himself better and to improve the quality of his thinking. Inasmuch as supervisory personnel have a continuing training relationship with the principals, they need to have goals for improvement similar to those sought by the campus pre-service training program or the organized in-service training program.

Implications for the Trainer

This study has shown how the needs, attitudes, and skills of the school principal affect his relationship with his teachers. It is obvious that these major components also affect the relationships between the superintendent and his staff of administrators and between the college professor and his students. The training suggested for the working administrator might be equally valuable to those who have the responsibility for training administrators. We return to our earlier justification for giving attention to improving

the effectiveness of school administrators: people who are in positions of great influence need to be well trained.

Part 2: APPLICATIONS
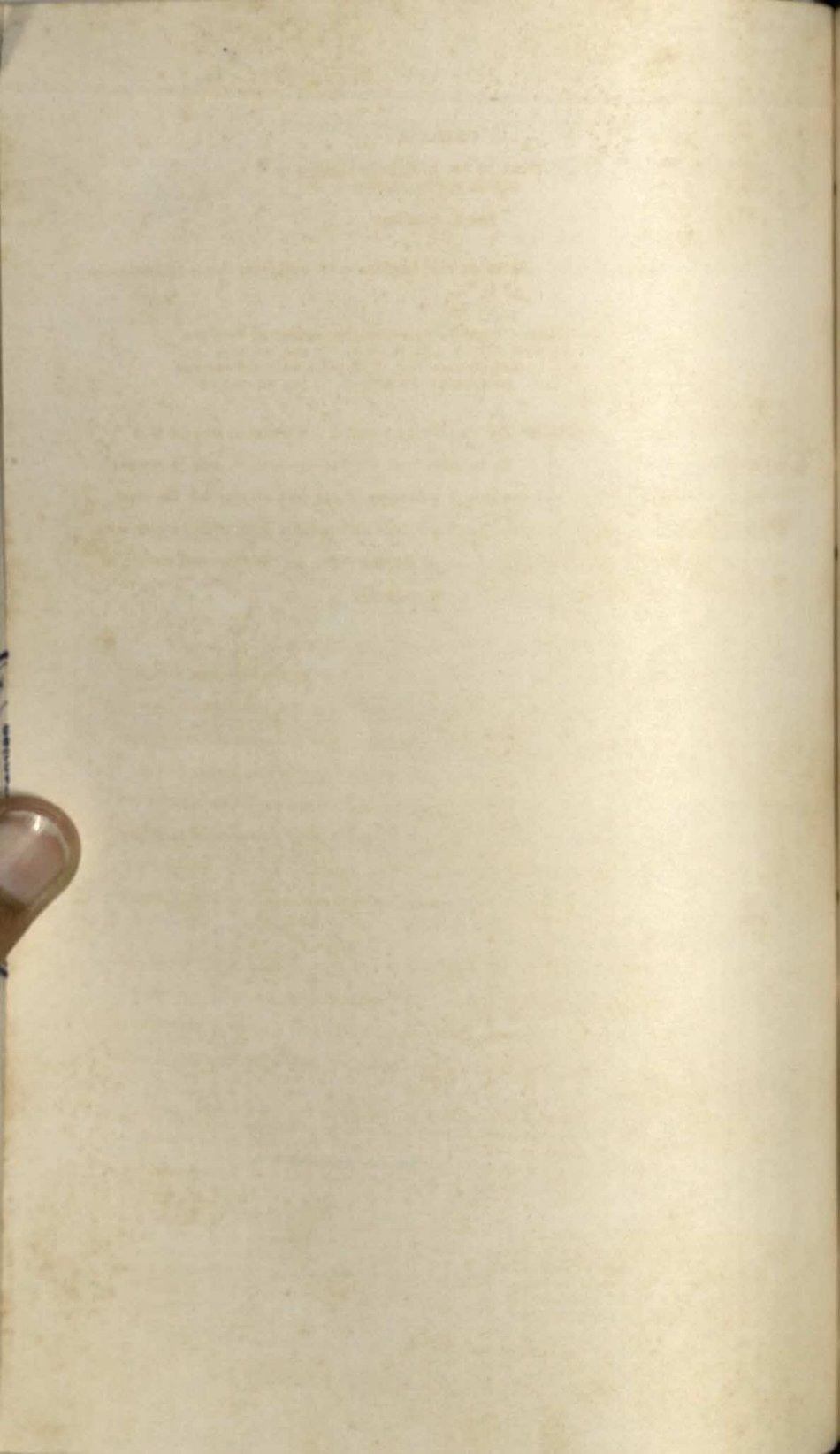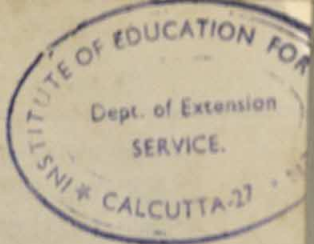
CHAPTER IX

APPLICATIONS TO THE IN-SERVICE PROGRAM OF
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Max R. Goodson

The study comes to a major conclusion that applies with particular force to in-service training:

> There is ... a continuing thread of relationships extending from the personal needs of the administrator as shown by his personality, through the way he plans and carries out administrative practices and develops a communication pattern in the school, to the general reactions of his staff.

This proposition sets a requirement for in-service training. A training venture must deeply involve the administrator so as to make facets of his personality open to change. Not all facets--and certainly not the deeper substance of his personality--but the sensitivities and skills that influence the quality of his relationship with other persons must improve if the administrator's competence is to improve. This is the essential meaning of the study for planning and managing in-service training.

A New Conception of In-service Training

Let us be clear about emphasis. The conception about to be advanced does not imply that training must reorganize the basic personality pattern of the administrator, nor that persons being given training in human relations need fear that they will undergo a major personality transformation. The integrity of the personality core will remain intact throughout such training. But the functional personality, as manifested through the trainee's role in his transaction with other persons, may undergo considerable modification.[1] It is the empirical self that is defined by his relations to other persons that undergoes a change, and not the historical personality that has been laid down in earlier stages of his growth and development.

The conclusion of the study may be used to draw attention to the limitations of certain in-service training efforts. The necessity of developing new and different sensitivities and skills in human transaction places grave limitations upon in-service training which seeks its impact through communicating information. A program of information about

---

[1] The term transaction is used deliberately in preference to such words as interaction and group process. These terms have become hackneyed and, more importantly, they do not convey the full meaning of human relations. Too frequently, their meaning is limited to discussion, a mutuality of emotion which is perhaps falsely assumed, and an idealised human relation that may not enable people to get off the dead center of a fantasied democracy.

On the other hand, transaction is more comprehensive, embracing discussion, the exploration of differences and conflict, sharing of feeling, and dynamic democracy. In addition, it connotes human beings in the process of exerting influence upon one another, setting limits of toleration and legitimacy to conduct, recognizing the reality of authority and power in a human organization, and working the problematic situation through to the point of substantial resolution.

ideas and practices does not retrain the functional personality. The incorporation of information about administrative practices, teacher-principal relations, etc., while it remains an important component of training, is not in itself sufficient to meet the problems about which this investigation has given us knowledge, particularly underscored in the four case studies.

An in-service training that depends upon inspiring the administrator to do a better job will not produce a significant change in his behavior. One would immediately add, however, that any effective in-service training must have a quality of inspiration. It is necessary that the trainee identify himself with in-service training activities. High involvement is important. What one is involved in is also important. The brilliant mind of an inspiring speaker may not have an impact upon the functional personality of the listener.

Experience-sharing will not satisfy the specification of in-service training made evident by the study. The opportunity to talk about the needs of their various schools and to exchange "what happens in my school" for "what happens in your school" is not adequate. Such content will be introduced inevitably into any in-service training enterprise, but one must not be misled into putting much confidence in activity limited to shop talk.

Laboratory Training in Human Relations

The study emphasizes a type of in-service training which has the character of a human relations laboratory. The trainee needs the opportunity to participate in laboratory activities. He needs to be freed from behavior commitments and made safe to experiment with his empirical self in various human transactions. This is the first criterion of training the study has brought into focus. More will be said about it at a later point.

A second criterion is that information is gathered and communicated about the antecedent of the trainee's behavior and its consequences. Here a boundary consideration is important. The information with the greatest relevancy for training is that derived from the immediate phenomena of the training group. Discussion of behavior occurring in a school situation may have some retraining impact. It is not at all comparable, however, to the force toward change that results from the human phenomena generated and analyzed in a laboratory. Therefore, the training enterprise needs a boundary that is appropriately described for trainees as "keeping our eyes on present events as we relate to one another here and now." This is the essence of the laboratory concept.

An example from a training record will illustrate the principle. A group of twelve trainees and their trainer at the third meeting designated Member A as their chairman, after the agenda for the session had been determined. Almost immediately Member B became the chairman. Other members aligned with B, recognizing his leadership in helping the group to make progress with its task. Member A retired and became relatively passive. Two

meetings later Member A showed hostility to B by attacking his ideology of democracy.

These phenomena were part and parcel of the reality of the group. The antecedents of A's show of hostility were that A wanted to be leader and the group nominally gave him the role, thereby justifying his expectation of being leader. Also, Member B wanted to be leader without clearly indicating his need to the group. A principal consequence, but not the only one, was the expressed hostility of A toward B. These transactions were observed and could be interpreted by trainees within the framework of the group's history.

The principle of immediacy does not mean that trainees have to have a mature capacity to observe and understand human behavior before they can participate in laboratory training. Some capacity is possessed by all persons, and training is achieved as the capacity, no matter how limited, is put to work. It goes without saying that to increase the capacity to observe and understand is the object of training. To be sure, such capacity must be possessed at a high level of expertness by one "member"--the trainer. It is necessary that he be willing and able to train so that trainees gain a comparable capacity as rapidly as possible.

There is one hazard of the laboratory meriting special attention. A safeguard is needed against producing disjunctive relations between trainees. A disjuncture destroys training because it arouses anxiety. Then the flow of collecting and using information is interrupted. Attempting an unwarranted assertion about an antecedent or a consequence of the behavior of another will produce a disjunctive relation and arouse the anxiety of the group. However, a trainee may legitimately interpret the behavior of another, provided the person whose conduct is examined recognizes the tentative quality of the observer's interpretation. Then the observer and the observed are conjoined. The observed is invited to check an external observation against the manner in which he is perceiving his inner self, and anxiety is avoided. This is the crux of effective training. For example: it was appropriate for a trainee, in unraveling the transactions described in a preceding paragraph, to say to B, "Did you feel the hostility of A's remarks about your ideology?" When B said "Yes," he gave an opening for further inquiry.

Thus B was invited to check the observation of another against his state of feeling. The communication of information became tolerable and legitimate. There was no need for the recipient to avoid the meaning of the information for his behavior or to block the group members in exploring related phenomena. With each success in examining data that connect the inner and outer aspects of behavior, members of a training group sense the reality of their transaction and by doing so release new personality skills and sensitivities.

Cultivating the Training Culture

Laboratory training, with its emphasis upon the immediate human transaction, requires the cultivation of a subculture. This culture must contrast with the work culture of the

school. To the degree that there are differences, the training culture[2] will focus demands upon the administrator for a different behavior and will reinforce his propensity to try new approaches in relating himself to others.

The primary source of the training culture is the need of trainees for a stable relationship with one another. This relationship has not been established because the trainees are relatively strange to one another.[3] They start by gathering data they can use in exploring and establishing relationships. Behavior is produced that becomes the source of further data which trainees use in seeking to satisfy their need for a dependable human transaction. Thus they build a group culture that has some unique qualities as well as some similarities to their respective work cultures, although these likenesses may perhaps never before have been recognized by them.

A training culture has the following chief properties:

1. Behavior of the trainer: The usual expectation that trainees have of an authority-figure--the trainer--is violated by his behavior. He grants an unusual amount of freedom from the very first contact, and accepts as interesting and worthy of attention any behavior that develops.

For example, the agenda that the group sets must be its own and not one that the trainer brings to the group. The content of the agenda for training purposes is not as important as the analysis the trainer helps group members make of how they arrived at their agenda and attempted to establish activities for satisfying needs.

A chief contribution of the trainer is in drawing the attention of trainees to their behavior and helping them to understand the phenomena their participation generates. His principal concern is to help trainees stay in close contact with their transaction so that the quality of the human relations generated may become the object of their investigation and influence.

2. A temporary culture: The training culture is temporary, having a duration of a few days or a few weeks at most. Thus relationships present much less of a threat to the trainee, and constrain him less, than do the relationships in his school. His propensity toward self-censorship and compulsive behavior is relaxed. His power to question human transactions is released. Also, the culture acquires a greater potency for him because he has invested his personality in building it from the beginning.

---

[2] The term culture, as used in this statement, represents more meaning than a strict use of the word ordinarily implies. Here a broadened interpretation is used that includes a description of a social system of persons in transaction with one another. The social system that is designed for training, therefore, institutionalizes a culture--one at variance with that embodied in the school. The training culture emphasizes the values of experimentation with, and the gathering and interpreting of facts about the human phenomena that are produced by the social system and that are occurring in the training laboratory.

[3] A strangeness may exist among people who have worked together in a school system for several years. In operating a school they may have perceived one another not simply as human beings, but almost wholly in their respective formal roles.

IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

A training culture produces for the trainee a paradoxical combination of a high involvement in human relations and a greater than usual detachment from them. Therefore he is able to gather data for thinking about human phenomena that excite him. This is a major difference between cultures of work and training.

An important result follows. The training culture has the effect of thawing to some extend the behavior, attitudes, and thinking patterns of the trainee. Habits "appropriate" to the school loose some of their coercion. New sensitivities and skills appropriate to the training culture are incorporated into the trainee's personality.

3. The resolution of personal emergencies: The training culture provides the administrator with the opportunity of resolving minor personal emergencies--an opportunity not ordinarily or sufficiently often provided by the school culture. The source of an emergency is a transaction of the group through which the trainee's personality receives both stimulation and frustration. For example, group members frequently resist receiving what one member is most ready to give. One may be prepared with a plan for a meeting only to discover that others do not accept it. This creates frustration and a sense of emergency.

Emergencies come also when members expect a behavior from one another which seemingly demands more than can be given. For instance, a member may be expected to take the chairman's role when he is experiencing mild anxiety about his adequacy to perform.

The emergency does not put too much strain on the trainee because of the support that he is given by others. Another ameliorating factor is the non-judgmental climate of the temporary culture. The behavior of the trainee is factually evaluated in terms of its antecedent and effect without his being blamed or punished. Therefore, he can work through personal emergencies successfully because his anxiety is kept relatively low and he is provided with relevant information that he can use in meeting his difficulty.

An emergency has impact upon the personality through the excitement it produces. Under conditions of a temporary culture with its inherent factors of safety, the excitement need not be throttled. It leads to the release of energy and experimental response that resolves the emergency. Thus the personality takes on additional skill and sensitivity.

4. Using social science content relevant to experienced phenomena: Social scientists have accumulated an intellectual content useful to the understanding of human behavior. The aspects of this content which are relevant to the training culture should become a part of the training culture. There are two possible orientations for selecting and presenting social science. One viewpoint is that of the researcher; the other is that of the trainee.

The conception of training here advanced creates a readiness for the trainee to learn social science that he can use in practice. Effective learning is assured by providing a principle of selection. The content of social science used in training should be valuable in interpreting for the trainee the immediate phenomena he is actively experiencing in his

effort to stabilize relationships with other trainees and to resolve his personal emer-
gencies.

Therefore social science is a resource of training that the trainer and his col-
leagues must make available to the training group. It is to be emphasized that the most
desirable and the most permanent changes are successfully induced in the personality of the
trainee only as he is afforded an opportunity to understand the immediate human transaction
through the findings and theories of the social scientist. Human relations training re-
presents one of the more promising avenues through which this resource may be brought to
the school administrator.

5. The training culture and what it produces: In summary, the training culture con-
trasts with school culture for the administrator at these points: (a) it is more directly
related to the reality of human behavior; (b) it is more admissive of the administrator's
subjective information as essential data to be used in the attempt to resolve human dif-
ficulties; (c) it creates a more permissive atmosphere for the administrator in which to
experiment and invent; and (d) it provides the administrator with a greater amount of in-
formation for understanding his functional personality.

The residue of learning for the administrator may be identified as: (a) increased
awareness of, and insights into, his personality dynamics; (b) greater sensitivity to the
needs and behavior of others; (c) a greater capacity to analyze objectively the needs and
behavior of others; and (d) an increased power to control his behavior in transaction with
others so as to harmonize the satisfaction of his own needs and the needs of others.[4]

Creating Readiness and Organizing for Training

Readiness for laboratory training is created when administrators are given the oppor-
tunity to see its relevancy to both their personal and professional goals. Understanding
the relevancy usually requires some preliminary demonstration and advanced preparation.
The content of the study itself will undoubtedly stimulate interest among its readers. A
large group demonstration of some aspect of human relations provides suggestions which
give orientation toward the promise of training and steps that may be taken to satisfy the
stimulated need.

An understanding on the part of supervisory personnel and the superintendent of a

---

[4]A word of caution is necessary about the expected outcome of training. It is easy
to over-expect. Research indicates that changes, sometimes quite extensive, are induced
through laboratory human relations training. But the sober consideration remains that
strong forces of habit and custom oppose efforts to retrain skill and sensitivity. For
the purpose of sharp and clear exposition, the language used here has been unfalteringly
positive and optimistic. That some change for the better will be accomplished is a
warranted expectation, but not in the case of every administrator to the extent one might
hope for or be led to expect from the forthright description of in-service training
presented here. The four case studies of an earlier chapter furnish a basis for estimating
the trainability of the principals who participated in the study. Some estimates are more
optimistic than others, depending upon the personality factors involved in a given case
and the attitude and standards of the person making the estimate.

IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

school system of the need that exists for the required training is a force toward creating readiness among principals. It is important that a state of need be demonstrated to principals, however, before a persistent effort is made to involve them and to organize resources for training.

Laboratory training may be organized effectively in accordance with various time arrangements. Time may be distributed in three-hour weekly sessions over a period of three or four months. A two-week period of undivided attention by the trainee provides an effective training that induces more change than the distributed pattern. What is realized in regard to new skill and sensitivity is dependent upon the quality of training and the amount of time invested. Different patterns have been used with relative success in so far as the limited research done upon the outcomes of training has demonstrated.

The composition and size of the training group are important considerations. Grouping administrators with other community leaders gives a heterogeneity that is advantageous in training. The group size may range from nine to eighteen. Too small a group is likely to deny the trainee the opportunity to work through certain types of human relations problems. A group larger than eighteen tend to produce artificiality of communication which prevents trainees from truly experiencing the human relations phenomena that are generated.

Transferring and Adapting to the School

The thesis of retraining is that the functional personality of the administrator changes to fit the norms and requirements of the training culture. Since these norms and requirements are different from those of the work culture of the school, it is necessary to give consideration to transferring and adapting from one culture to another. This consideration is an integral aspect of the in-service training program.

The new skill and sensitivity of human relations developed and proven by the administrator in the training culture must be tested by him in application to the school culture. Transferring and testing in toto would be an impossibility for the reason that the two cultures are quite different. Teachers, students, and other school personnel have not participated with the administrator in the training culture. Their behavior has remained bound to the school culture. Therefore the administrator must make adaptation--on a piece by piece basis, so to speak--from his training experience to the school culture.

Adapting needs to be emphasized. For example, administrative chaos would be produced if a principal behaved like a trainer in his relations with teachers by giving them excessive leeway and then interpreting to them what happened as a result (of its misuse). This behavior may fit the training culture but would create a disturbance in the school. In effect, the administrator would be abdicating his role. Again, to introduce the procedure of observing a faculty meeting with feedback of information on the behavior of teachers, before they were ready, would likely induce anxiety which would become unmanageable. What is it, then, that transfers, and how are appropriate adaptations made? The

APPLICATIONS

personality of the administrator, with its increased skill and sensitivity, transfers from training to the school. Skill and sensitivity in human relations are the intervening link. As the new skill and sensitivity are put to work, the administrator is able to diagnose the school culture and to introduce appropriate innovations.

These are criteria for introducing innovations successfully:

1. A key consideration is that the acceptance of the administrator's behavior in the school is influenced by relationships established before his retraining. The relationships have stabilized for teachers their expectation of the administrator's behavior. Newly manifested behavior threatens teachers because it does not conform to the previously stable expectation. The violation of expectation has to be interpreted to teachers.

Both the teachers and administrator must understand what has happened to him. This is a responsibility of the administrator to which he is required to give thought and preparation. Such thinking and preparing need to be given attention in the training culture.

2. The newly acquired skill and understanding of the administrator must be adapted to the school culture in accordance with the risk he is willing to assume. Here is where self-understanding comes into necessary play for the administrator. Also understanding others plays a crucial part. It is at the point of making self-appraisal compatible with the analysis of others that consultative help is frequently and urgently needed by the administrator.

Before he attempts an innovation, the administrator needs to rehearse it until he understands it in relation to the probability of its resistance and acceptance by teachers. This is the principle of reality-testing in advance of taking action. Only by acting on this principle can the administrator act with the necessary ease and confidence and avoid involving himself in difficulty.

3. An innovation is most successfully introduced through an experimental approach. This approach includes the cycle of diagnosing a problematic situation in the school, planning and taking action, and studying the results of that action. Asking the right questions and procuring the appropriate facts are the essence of managing the cycle of change. Here again, consultation is a strategic resource of the administrator.

Introducing an innovation with no commitment to its continuation unless teachers give their consent in the future, reduces the threat of change. But the relationship between threat reduction and getting approval works both ways. In the final analysis, reducing threat for getting consent to change can be done only by the practice of sensitive and skillful human relations. The experimental approach has another side also. It requires fact-finding, so that problems can be adequately analyzed and future judgments can be based upon information.

The Administrator's Administrator--
His Responsibility for Training

We return now to the basic assumption of the study. "The effectiveness of a school

a school system is greatly influenced, if not fully determined, by the quality of its administration." The study has made it abundantly clear that administration is dealing with human beings, and that what happens to teachers in a school is dependent upon the human relations skill and sensitivity of the principal.

It follows that the personnel of the superintendent's office can have a most strategic influence upon a school culture through the opportunity for in-service training that they provide the principal. This chapter has outlined a conception of training that is centered in the human transaction. The responsibility for realizing the promise of human relations training rests in the central office of a school system. It is here that the greatest potential power resides for planning and managing in-service training of administrators. It is from the central office that authorization and support for in-service training must come.

But the administrator's administrator should not be expected to accept the claims made for human relations training without the opportunity to test those claims. A sequel to the present study, then, should initiate a conception of in-service training somewhat along the lines of this chapter, for the purpose of realizing the values that are now evident, and for the more important purpose, in the long perspective, of determining whether or not training in human relations will fulfill its promise.

Does human relations training make a difference? This question remains a theme for further inquiry. The present study has provided a foundation for a profitable investigation into the effects of the human relations training of the school administrator. The investigation may be made either in the school setting of the present study or in another set of school circumstances. These alternatives point the way to a next research step.

APPLICATIONS TO ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Implications for Elementary-School Administration

Robert L. Nash

Elementary-school principals _are_ important. This has been the contention of the members of the Ohio Department of Elementary-School Principals since the inception of the organization, and of elementary-school principals generally for many years. The findings of this study have borne out this contention.

More than that, these findings point the way toward strengthening the principalship and making it more effective. The Ohio Department might well use many of them as a basis for planning future state-wide in-service programs.

Certain conclusions reached as the result of this investigation are particularly worthy of consideration. One of the most significant of these pertains to the finding that the administrator's behavior is an important force in determining teacher morale. Length of service, age, and sex may be discounted as factors in successful administration so far as this study is concerned, but there is little doubt, among the teachers who gave expression to their opinions, that the personal make-up and the policies and practices of the principal exert a strong influence on the staff atmosphere and the general functioning of the school.

Obviously principals, like persons in any other walk of life, range widely in personality, from the warm and friendly to the hostile and defensive. Fortunately, the greatest number fall in the middle group which is amenable to change and improvement. Therefore, certain general patterns for improvement, concerned primarily with broadening the philosophic-mindedness of Ohio's elementary-school principals, might well be established by the colleges and universities of the state. A similar responsibility devolves upon our principals' organizations, state, sectional, and local. In the final analysis, of course, both the promotion and acceptance of training depend upon the individual's alertness to his need and his interest in his own growth.

Needless to say, the success of a training program will require more than a recognition of the need for it and co-operation from the participants. There must be a careful preliminary study of the goals it sets and wise planning of the techniques to be used in arriving at those goals. The persons who are responsible for the training must be fully cognizant, and themselves representative, of the administrative qualities they seek to cultivate.

Within the confines of this brief chapter there is no room for a discussion of objectives, but emphasis should be placed on the fact that personal progress in achieving these

will best be measured by the degree to which it affects the principal's actual administra-
tive functioning in his own school. Elementary-school principals should come to grips
with problems through a realistic program in their particular school setting. The impor-
tant point is not what form this program takes, but that there is such a program. In some
instances, school personnel have found growth opportunities in a study of curriculum devel-
opment; in other schools development has taken place through another approach. Helping
teachers to focus as a group upon important concerns is a fundamental leadership respon-
sibility. As the result of group experience, the principal will find his own concept of
leadership gradually changing: he will cease to think of himself as one who controls the
behavior of subordinates and begin to think of himself as one who guides others in re-
leasing their own potentials for growth and development.

The Job of Elementary-School Principal
Richard L. Featherstone

Although I first became acquainted with this study while I was seeking data related
to another research project, a brief examination of the material raised a question in my
mind as to the usefulness of the ideas in a practical school setting. Because of the sim-
ilarity of approach between the school system where I work and the one reported in this
study I was stimulated to examine the report in detail to discover what ideas might be
used to advantage in my own school.

The discussion of the effects which the behavior of the administrator have upon the
working atmosphere in the school building held particular interest for me. In the follow-
ing year an assistant principal was to be assigned to our building, and it would be nec-
essary to help him establish a place for himself in the school staff. It seemed clear
that what this new administrative person did would have an important effect upon the school
atmosphere.

Since this was a newly created position, the opportunity was open to attempt to devel-
op a role for him which would help communication in the school and, as a result, improve
the educational offerings in the classrooms.

Although I recognized that the communication among the teachers themselves was impor-
tant, my major interest was in developing clearcut, open lines of communication between the
teachers and the new assistant principal. With this specific goal in mind, several proce-
dures and processes were put into action.

Establishing the New Role

At the beginning of the year the entire staff participated in establishing the role
of the assistant principal. This undertaking was approached from three directions. First,
the teachers suggested in what role the principal could be of the greatest help to them.

APPLICATIONS

The new assistant principal then presented his own ideas of how he believed he might work most usefully in the school. Finally, I explained how the new assistant might help in the administrative program. The major outcome of this discussion was a joint decision that the assistant principal would give his major attention, not to clerical work, but to helping the teachers in the development of their classroom programs. Another important outcome was that the entire staff now had some common understanding of the role the new assistant would take.

Steps in Developing Communication

After several conferences, the assistant principal and I decided upon a number of procedures that would contribute to the development of open lines of communication between the staff and himself and for which he should take responsibility.

Being near the bulletin board in the morning.

One of the most important principal-teacher contacts was the morning gathering near the bulletin board. Each teacher checked the board for announcements, film schedules, etc., and the assistant was easily available for comments, answers to questions, or aid in follow-through on school business. These contacts were entirely free and informal; the only requirement was that the assistant principal be there to answer questions or just to pass the time of day.

Techniques of communication.

Written bulletins were avoided as the main source of communication; instead, announcements were made, whenever possible, to various groups in the building during an informal gathering. At the conclusion of the meeting individual staff members were asked to pass the information along to others who had not been present. This procedure was designed to increase and improve teacher-teacher communication. Items needing discussion by the entire staff were added to the agenda for the regular faculty meetings by any staff member. A written summary of the faculty meetings was distributed to each staff member.

Making opportunities to visit individual classrooms.

The assistant principal took every opportunity to visit individual classrooms, particularly those of first-year teachers. There were dozens of different reasons for doing so. For example, he delivered notes about special events; he checked with the teachers to pick up a child for a dental appointment; or he dropped in with information about the Blue Cross Plan which the teacher had requested. In each of these cases he used the opportunity to ask about the classroom, notice a particular child, or comment about some physical aspect of the room. In a short time the teachers became quite at ease with him in the classroom and often volunteered comments about specific pupil problems. These brief discussions were basic in helping the new assistant principal to make a direct contribution to the improvement of classroom practices.

_____ supplies available.

It seemed true in our school, as it was in the schools reported in this study, that _____ often related the matter of obtaining of school supplies to effective administra- ____. The assistant principal worked directly with the teachers in developing a supply _____, and he took the responsibility for following through on any requests for supplies. ____, an absolute minimum of paper work was used; the emphasis was placed on the teacher- _____ relationship.

Using the Informal Contact

In all of these procedures and processes the key was the informal face-to-face re- _____. If the assistant principal carried through these contacts effectively, we _____ that a feeling of working security would be developed by the teachers as well as __ the new administrator. Each would have an increased sense of belonging and a greater _____ of purpose, and a generally improved school atmosphere would result.

These activities meant, of course, that the assistant principal spent little time in __ school office. Records and accounts still had to be kept, but they were handled by _____ help whenever possible. Those phases of the paper administration which had to be ___ by the principal and assistant principal were usually taken care of prior to the _____ of school or after the teachers had left for the day.

With the assistant principal taking over the responsibilities discussed, my role as a _____ became better clarified. For example, there seemed to be more time for me to ___ in-service training for the staff, to work with parent groups, and to do general cur- _____ work that I had not been able to do previously. Of course, at all times we tried __ work as closely together as possible. Our contacts were as informal as those between __ teachers and assistant principal. During get-togethers we would discuss activities __ assistant principal was carrying on, and I would attempt to correlate them with my own _____. At the same time, he aided me in developing the plans and programs for in- _____ work and attempted to coordinate his work in such a manner as to implement the _____.

Not all of the required changes in my role were easy to make. My own pattern of re- _____ with the teachers was inevitably modified, and some new sources of personal _____ had to be established. At times these changes raised inevitable feelings of _____ and insecurity. In fact, I found it necessary to force myself to be absent ___ certain faculty meetings which the assistant principal planned and led. There seemed __ be no other way, for a time, for me to keep myself from overriding him. Now I enjoy _____ in a faculty meeting with him, and we work as a pretty good team.

Outcomes

The experience during the school year indicated that these procedures had a positive

effect for the good on the teachers and on the atmosphere in the school. Various teachers reported that "We have had more supplies, than in the past"; "it's easier to get help with problems."

Probably one of the most exciting outcomes of the plan has been the complete acceptance by the teachers and children of the assistant principal, who has commented: "I didn't break into the administrative role--I just arrived." I believe that he has gained a great deal of insight into his functions.

Both of us are aware of the values inherent in the procedures we used when we see the results with regard to the children. The assistant principal acts as an arbitrator, umpire, and guidance counselor for many of the children. Since he has been in the classrooms so often, he is accepted by the majority of them. They stop by to see him and leave samples of their work. He has been able to develop a very good pupil-administrator relationship.

The plan has operated effectively. The data shown in the various sections of the monograph provided good background for evolving the break-in plan for the assistant principal. Communication between the teachers, pupils, and administrators is vitally important. It can be developed on a fairly free basis if special efforts are made to do so. Supplies and face-to-face contact are important and, as pointed out in other sections of the monograph, informality is an important key to morale.

CHAPTER XI

APPLICATION TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Ross L. Mooney

In the perception laboratory, it is not difficult to show that what we have in mind when we open our eyes makes a difference in what we see. If two parallel lines of light, one shorter than the other, are exposed to view in a dark room and we look at them with the idea in mind that they are "lines," we will see the difference between them in terms of length. If we look at these same lines of light with the idea in mind that they are "telephone poles," we will see the difference in terms of distance. Merely by changing what we have in mind when we look at things, we change what we see.

Behind a man's eyes are his ideas, and he sees with his ideas just as surely as he sees with his eyes. Not only is this principle evident in the laboratory, it is old and familiar in daily affairs. We all know the difference it makes if, in walking through a woods, we have in mind the idea of hunting squirrels, of painting a picture, of selecting timber for sale, or of finding a place to picnic. Each idea leads to a different ordering of experience, and each guides action toward different consequences. It is the same in human affairs. We well know the difference it makes, if, in a school situation, we hold in mind the idea of children as persons who are to be prepared for the future, or persons who are to learn the cultural values of the past, or persons who are to be developed as individual personalities. Courses of action will differ accordingly.

Ideas thus have consequences. They function in inquiry to hold together what is seen and done. They serve in the grasping of experience as arms and hands do in the grasping of physical objects. Through continuous use in a course of action, they shape what is thought and done. This is an important principle in research. The researcher, on enter-ing his problem field, needs to be aware of what he is using to grasp what he sees and to shape what he does. Indeed, he can think of his work as being primarily the improvement of his ideas.

The first need of the research man, as he enters on a specific research venture, is to become as clear as he can concerning the idea he is going to use. He does this by distill-ing the experience he has had in previous problem situations similar to the one he is now to enter. As he moves through his experience in the specific situation, he tries his way of grasping. As he does so, he finds that he is able to grasp some things but that others slip through his fingers. Among the things grasped, he is likely to find a good deal of what he expects but also some relationships he had not expected. The latter are often nuggets of delight for they provide insight into fresh relations which he had not hitherto sensed. More rewarding in the long run, however, is likely to be the attention he gives

APPLICATIONS

to what has eluded his grasp. His shortcomings here may be due to inadequacies in his means of grasping or to hitherto unrealized characteristics in what he had intended to grasp. His means of grasping may have failed because the fingers of his idea were too few, too clumsy, too weak, inappropriately placed for getting a grip, etc. That which he had intended to grasp may well have been more liquid, more furtive, more stubborn, larger, smaller, or differently proportioned than he had supposed.

When things have eluded him, the researcher may well have no more than a vague inkling of what has happened. He may feel he has sensed "the kind of thing" which has scraped his fingers as it passed through his grasp, or he may have evolved a sense of what he "ought to have gotten," derived from what appears to him to be sensible relations in the full field of his inquiry. Out of these, he works ahead to hypothesize improvements in his means of grasping so that, next time, he may be able to catch more. This is the outcome of his study, the modified idea which, coming at the end of one trial, is the beginning of the next. What started as idea and was tested through use in specific concretion now emerges again as idea. This is the rhythm of inquiry.

In more formal statement, one might say that the rhythm of inquiry moves through the following phases: the researcher (a) forms a theory from his past experience to be used for grasping the new situation, (b) tries his grasping, (c) analyzes relationships among the things he has succeeded in getting hold of, (d) gives attention to inadequacies in his means of grasping, and (e) summarizes the whole experience in the form of a modified theory to be used as a beginning in a subsequent trial. This is the pulsating push in the broad rhythm of scientific progression.

In reporting research, workers can help one another most and can advance scientific development best by showing the full rhythm of their inquiry as it has proceeded. This does not mean the revelation of all detail, but it does mean telling the sequential story—the beginning theory, the successes and failures (particularly the failures), and the mental shifts as experience progresses to its fruition in a modified theory. This makes the research report the story of a man's adventure with ideas. The excitement grows from the creation of idea, test, and re-creation of idea. This is the essence of the research experience, its spirit as well as its reality.

The modified theory which the researcher creates as the end product of a particular enterprise may be important to him, as a painter's completed painting may be important to the painter, but far more important in the long run, both to the researcher and the painter, is the process by which the end product was produced and the direct experiencing of that process at the time the creator is involved in it. What one research worker wants from another, in a research report, is the sharing of that experience and its insightful teachings for the improvement of his own processes.

Many people who use the end product of research are not research workers, themselves.

and do not need or want the developmental story as the research worker wants it and needs it. These consumers want only a few of the nuggets, or the construction of the idea which comes as a result of the research worker's experience in successive research situations. They want research outcomes for use in quite different connections for creations of a quite different order. Furthermore, they want these outcomes selected and packaged conveniently for their own particular uses.

Mention needs to be made of this significant difference between reporting for research producers and research consumers, because confusion at this point can well lead to serious misunderstandings and wasted energy. The consumer, upon picking up a report prepared for a producer, can readily say, "Why all these abstractions! Where are the findings! Why can't these guys be concrete and talk plain like ordinary people! Nuts to this (and, parenthetically, to the guys who wrote it)!" The producer, upon picking up a report prepared for a consumer, can readily say, "Superficial! Next to advertising! No theory, no procedures, no test! Nuts to this (and, parenthetically, to the guys who wrote it)!"

Obvious as this general observation on research reporting may be, it is a lesson poorly learned, even among research men who are reporting for one another. The bulk of the research reporting is end product stuff, not process stuff. This trend is encouraged by a dedication to "public" science which can easily become so blind that it does not recognize the "private" sciencing on which the creation and containment of "public" science depends.[1] The reports neglect the initial commitment to an idea for grasping, the obstacles met in the use of that idea, the attempted reconstruction, the failures before the cussed stubbornness of the researcher's often unyielding habits, the portrayal of the whence and why and how of the changing mind. Through such omissions, research workers are failing to teach one another the most important lessons. They are also missing a chance to enhance their own lives and to enrich their productions, while they continue, in their unconscious habits, to tempt themselves and others with a notion of science as something beyond---! Science, not even public science, is magic; it is a creation and containment of man, subject to all the frailty and glory that is man.

What I like about the report in Part 1 of this monograph is its basic acknowledgement of its humanness. I read it as a research producer and I looked for the research men behind the pages of the book. Despite the fact that the authors have used the customary impersonal style of writing, one can readily sense their acceptance of themselves as the experiential center for the enterprise. In the main, the structuring of the report follows the pattern of an unfolding full rhythm of inquiry, and this makes the humanness easier to see.

---

[1] For an illuminating discussion of "public" and "private" science, see Gerald Holton, "The Duality and Growth of Physical Science," *The American Scientist*, Vol. 41, No. 1, January, 1953, pp. 89-99.

APPLICATIONS

Chapter I reveals the over-all design (page 2): "Our central concern was the establishment of certain hypotheses and the discovery of information which would help us know whether these hypotheses had any validity. Through the testing of hypotheses and their consequent clarification and more accurate definition, we can begin to build a dependable theory of human organization which has direct application to school administration. This is the only way in which we can make efficient use of the research data we develop in different situations." Chapter II draws on past experience to formulate the theory-for-grasping; Chapter III tells the story of the grasping, with failures as well as successes shown; Chapters IV, V, and VI show both the successes and the failures; Chapters VII and VIII point to the original theory and to ways in which substantiation and modification are called for.

I would have liked a somewhat more formal statement of the modified theory at the end, shown in contrast to the original theory. I would also have liked a more complete and personal story, from beginning to end, showing the research man at work while the productions of the work were being displayed. But these are refinements of what is already implicit in mood and manner; they point to nothing that would be new to those who did the work.

Furthermore, as a report which explicitly undertakes (page vii) to be "of use to persons who are in different ways concerned with educational administration...the professor who must improve the design of his graduate courses...the dean who is concerned with the over-all campus program...the administrator who has to meet the everyday problems of the school system...the researcher who is, like the authors, struggling to develop more adequate understanding of the processes of school administration," the record of substantial satisfaction to even one research man is little short of remarkable. What the professor, the dean, and the administrator say is up to them, and they have said it (Chapters II, I, and XI). If there are, indeed, applications for each which are fruitful for each, while none complains about the excess he can't see the use in (though others would complain if it weren't there), then this is a remarkable accomplishment, indeed.

Functionally, what this monograph does, from the point of view of the researcher, is to test the hypothesis that there is a way of writing research reports which can serve several consumers at once. Behind that is the hypothesis of the whole enterprise that there is a way in which a research worker can associate himself with other research workers and with concerned men who are in quite different pursuits so that all can profit and all can communicate with one another. To a very great degree, this is the problem of the social science researcher today. Can it be done? Has it been done?

My answer to both questions is yes. Such intimate sharing requires, above all, men who constantly remember, in their association with one another, that each is first of all a man and only thereafter a professor, a dean, an administrator, a researcher, or what-not;

for, as this study itself brings out, the unity and effectiveness of any association of men rests, at last, on their readiness to grant one another the only thing they have in common, beyond all doubt--their inescapable humanity.
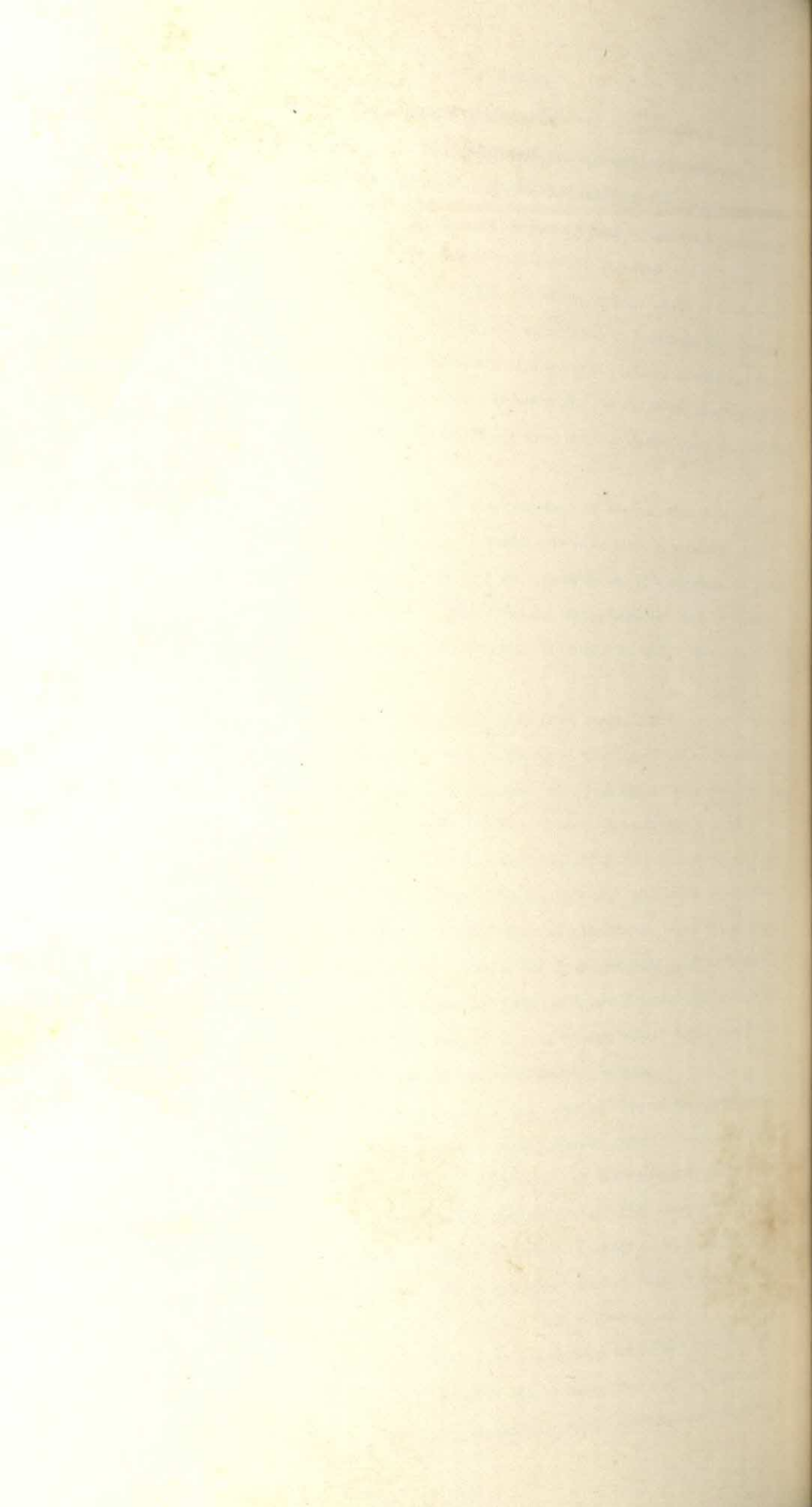
SELECTED REFERENCES

SELECTED REFERENCES

1. Adorno, T. W., Frenkel-Brunswik, Else, Levinson, Daniel J., and Sanford, R. Nevitt. *The Authoritarian Personality*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1950.

2. Banning, Evelyn I. "Personal Relationships Do Affect Curriculum Change," *The School Executive*, 73 (September, 1953), 47-49.

3. Benne, Kenneth D., and Muntyan, Bozidar. *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*. New York: Dryden Press, 1951.

4. Berger, Emanuel M. "The Relation Between Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47 (October, 1952), pp. 778-82.

5. Borgatta, Edgar F., Bales, Robert F., and Couch, Arthur S. "Some Findings Relevant to the Great Man Theory of Leadership," *American Sociological Review*, 19 (December, 1954), pp. 755-59.

6. Cantor, Nathaniel. *The Dynamics of Learning*. Buffalo, New York: Foster and Stewart, 1946.

7. _____. *The Teaching-Learning Process*. New York: Dryden Press, 1953.

8. Cartwright, Dorwin, and Zander, Alvin. *Group Dynamics*. Evanston: Rowe Peterson, 1953.

9. Chase, Francis S. "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," *Administrator's Notebook*, 1 (March, 1953).

10. Clark, Teunison C., and Miles, Matthew B. "Human Relations Training for School Administrators," *Journal of Social Issues*, 10 (No. 2, 1954), pp. 25-39.

11. Combs, Arthur W., and Fisk, Robert S. "Problems and Research Needs in Administration," *Journal of Social Issues*, 10 (No. 2, 1954), pp. 49-58.

12. Combs, Arthur W., Fisk, Robert S., Fine, Harold J., Zimet, Carl N., Wiberley, J. Albert, and Nesbitt, Daniel A. "The Syracuse Studies" (Human Relations Training for School Administrators), *Journal of Social Issues*, 10 (No. 2, 1954), pp. 5-24.

13. Greenwood, Ernest. "Social Science and Social Work: A Theory of Their Relationship," *Social Service Review*, 29 (March, 1955), pp. 20-33.

14. Hochbaum, Godfrey M. "The Relation Between Group Members' Self-Confidence and Their Reactions to Group Pressures to Uniformity," *American Sociological Review*, 19 (December, 1954), pp. 678-87.

15. Homans, George C. *The Human Group*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1950.

16. Jacobson, E., Kahn, R., Mann, F., and Morse, N. "Human Relations Research in Large Organizations," *Journal of Social Issues*, 7 (No. 3, 1951), (entire issue).

17. Kahn, Robert L., and Katz, Daniel. "Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale," (in) Cartwright, D., and Zander, A., *Group Dynamics*. Evanston, Illinois: Rowe Peterson, 1953, pp. 585-611.

18. Kelley, Earl E. *The Workshop Way of Learning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951.

19. Kelley, Harold H. "Communication in Experimentally Created Hierarchies," *Human Relations*, 4 (No. 1, 1951), pp. 39-57.

20. Lewin, Kurt. *Field Theory in Social Science*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1951.

21. Lewin, Kurt, and Grabbe, Paul. "Conduct, Knowledge, and Acceptance of New Values," *Journal of Social Issues*, 1 (1945), pp. 53-63.

22. Maier, Norman R. F. "An Experimental Test of the Effect of Training on Discussion Leadership," *Human Relations*, 6 (May, 1953), pp. 161-73.

23. _____. "The Quality of Group Decisions as Influenced by the Discussion Leader," *Human Relations*, 3 (June, 1950), pp. 155-74.

REFERENCES

24. Menninger, William C. "Self-Understanding for Teachers," NEA Journal, 4 (September, 1953), pp. 331-33.

25. Moyer, Donald C. "Leadership That Teachers Want," Administrator's Notebook, 3 (March, 1955).

26. National Society for the Study of Education. Learning and Instruction. 49th Year-book, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

27. Newcomb, Theodore. "Austistic Hostility and Social Reality," Human Relations, 1 (1947), pp. 3-20.

28. Rogers, Carl R. Counseling and Psychotherapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942.

29. Schachter, Stanley, Ellertson, Norris, McBrid, Dorothy, and Gregory, Doris. "An Experimental Study of Cohesiveness and Productivity," Human Relations, 4 (August, 1951), pp. 229-38.

30. Seay, Maurice F. "Group Dynamics for School Administrators," The School Executive, 73 (September, 1953), pp. 19-21.

31. Sharp, George. Curriculum Development as Re-education of the Teacher. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951.

32. Shaw, Marvin E. "A Comparison of Two Types of Leadership in Various Communication Nets," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 50 (January, 1955), pp. 127-34.

33. Thelen, Herbert A. Dynamics of Groups at Work. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

34. Thibaut, John W., and Coules, John. "The Role of Communication in the Reduction of Interpersonal Hostility," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 47 (October, 1952), pp. 770-77.

35. Watson, Goodwin. "Five Factors in Morale," (in) Watson, Goodwin (ed.) Civilian Morale. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1942, pp. 30-47.

36. White, Ralph, and Lippitt, Ronald. "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three 'Social Climates,'" (in) Cartwright, D., and Zander, A., Group Dynamics. Evanston: Rowe Peterson, 1953, pp. 585-611.

37. Wiles, Kimball. Supervision for Better Schools. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954.

38. Yauch, Wilbur A. Improving Human Relations in School Administration. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

APPENDICES

TABULATIONS OF DATA
SECURED IN THE STUDY OF ANTECEDENTS
AND EFFECTS OF ADMINISTRATOR BEHAVIOR

The majority of the tables which were developed from the data secured in this study are reported on the following pages. They are arranged in the same order in which they are discussed in the text of Chapters IV and V. The outline headings under which they are placed are also the same as those used in Chapters II and III.

Because most of these tables deal with the reactions of the teachers, the column headings generally refer to a particular scale on the teaching questionnaire. Numbers refer to those used for each question in February and May. When the same questions are used in February and May, the tense used is the present, though in May the past tense usually appears on the questionnaire. The headings, with their identifying information, are presented below:

Section Numbers

February (Schedule III)	May (Schedule V)	Heading	Question
1		Teacher Reaction to Problem Selection	How did you personally feel about the curriculum study problems when they were selected by your building group?
4	2	Teacher Reaction to Organization	What is your reaction to the way the teachers in your building are organized for the curriculum study?
5	6	General Rating	In general, how would you rate the curriculum study activities so far this year?
2	3	Teacher Sense of Direction	Do you have a feeling you know where you are going in these activities?
3	4	Teacher Sense of Progress	Do you feel you are getting any place?
6	7	Teacher Sense of Contribution	How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty are able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?
7	8	Teacher Sense of Togetherness	How close a working relationship do you feel you have with others on the faculty?
	10	Getting Supplies	How helpful is the principal's office in getting needed materials and supplies for you?
	11	Supplying Information	How well are you kept informed about the things which affect your work and your school?
	12	Defining Responsibilities	When considering problems in the school, how clearly and consistently do you believe the respective responsibilities of the teachers and the principal have been defined?
	13	Giving Approval	How frequently do you find yourself being given encouragement and approval by the principal?

APPENDICES

Question Numbers

February (Schedule III)	May (Schedule V)	Heading	Question
10a		Amount of Teacher-Teacher Communication	How often do you find yourself talking informally with other teachers in the building about important curriculum problems?
10b		Breadth of Teacher-Teacher Communication	With whom do you usually talk about these problems?
11	14	Communication with Principal	Do you find it easy to talk with the principal about your ideas and suggestions for the school?

Wherever means are reported for ratings secured from the teachers, they were computed as follows: The mean rating for all the teachers in each school was first determined separately; the mean and standard deviation of the means of the schools in each of the groupings used was then computed and the figures reported in the tables. Because the unit upon which this study was focused was the school principal, his school was the unit of relevant data for him and became the unit of analysis. This procedure prevented schools with a large number of teachers from having an undue influence on the data.

Along with each of the tables we have indicated the comparisons between the various categories which were made. The value of the "t" is given for the comparisons where the probability of the difference occurring by chance is .10 or less. One asterisk after the "t" indicates a probability of .05 or less, and two asterisks indicate the probability of .01 or less.

For certain comparisons we hypothesized that differences which were found would be in a particular direction. On these tables the value of "t" is that of the "one-tailed t." These tables are so indicated by a note. The "t" values were computed on a formula related to the independence of the two measures being compared.

Although many of the tables contain few statistically significant differences, they are presented here so that the reader can examine them critically for what light they may throw on the questions he has in mind. They seem to the authors to lend themselves well to the exploration of "hunches" which might, when formulated, become fruitful hypotheses for further study. Many such ideas presented themselves as these data were developed.

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

Table I
1. Sex of Principals
(Description, p. 33)

February

Background Data		2 Selection I. Reaction to Problem	4 I. Reaction to Organization	7b General Rating	5 I. Sense of Direction	6 I. Sense of Progress	8 I. Sense of Contribution	9 I. Sense of Togetherness	10a Communication Amount of I.-T.	10b Communication Breadth of I.-T.	11 Communication with Principal
Men (N = 15)	M	5.58	4.97	3.56	5.46	4.31	3.82	5.53	5.01	4.30	5.67
	SD	.69	.72	.67	.76	.81	.68	.78	.72	.59	1.15
Women (N = 31)	M	5.69	4.63	3.45	5.08	4.22	3.75	5.43	4.86	4.19	5.81
	SD	.96	.98	.92	1.01	.98	.82	.99	.67	.66	1.15

No Significant Differences

May

Background Data		2 I. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 I. Sense of Direction	4 I. Sense of Progress	7 I. Sense of Contribution	8 I. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
Men (N = 15)	M	4.93	4.09	5.41	4.41	4.26	5.76	5.70	5.63	5.21	5.26	6.11
	SD	.69	.69	.66	.64	.56	.70	.90	1.02	.91	1.25	1.09
Women (N = 31)	M	4.99	4.05	5.31	4.41	4.06	5.53	6.12	6.04	5.33	5.83	6.11
	SD	1.02	.87	.93	.99	.89	.82	1.07	.73	.85	.75	.98
Differences	t										1.87	

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

Table IIa
2a. Age of Principals
(Description, p. 33)

Background Data (February)		2 I. Reaction to Problem Selection	4 I. Reaction to Organization	7b General Rating	5 I. Sense of Direction	6 I. Sense of Progress	8 I. Sense of Contribution	9 I. Sense of Togetherness	10a Amount of T.-T. Communication	10b Breadth of T.-T. Communication	11 Communication with Principal
A. 36-40 Years of Age (N = 7)	M	6.15	5.47	4.09	5.42	4.84	4.17	6.22	5.49	4.75	6.89
	SD	.87	.74	.97	.48	.86	1.09	.40	.35	.52	.66
B. 41-50 Years of Age (N = 7)	M	5.25	4.55	3.52	5.01	4.04	3.82	5.44	4.87	4.25	5.70
	SD	.81	.67	.81	.69	1.02	.43	.66	.72	.55	.61
C. 51-60 Years of Age (N = 19)	M	5.75	4.66	3.37	5.17	4.29	3.80	5.36	4.73	4.12	5.55
	SD	.91	.96	.78	1.13	.89	.67	1.04	.70	.68	1.13
D. 61-70 Years of Age (N = 10)	M	5.50	4.51	3.36	5.23	4.06	3.51	5.20	4.90	4.13	5.85
	SD	.69	.98	.74	1.06	.87	.77	.96	.61	.70	.86
Differences											
AB	t	1.87	2.05	1.86				2.48*	1.88	1.62	3.26**
AC	t		1.94					2.06	2.62*	2.13*	2.85**
AD	t	1.62	2.06	1.64		1.72		2.50*	2.15*	1.88	3.03**

Table IIa (contd.)

(May)		2 T. Reaction to Organization	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	6 General Rating	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Pinched Pedal
A. 36-40 Years of Age (N = 7)	M	5.67	5.71	4.74	4.26	4.64	6.21	6.98	6.67	6.21	6.66	7.07
	SD	.97	1.02	.93	.77	.87	.62	.35	.18	.48	.34	.34
B. 41-50 Years of Age (N = 7)	M	4.30	4.67	4.07	3.95	3.97	5.21	5.85	5.64	5.15	4.96	5.64
	SD	.75	.73	.67	.74	.44	.77	.89	.67	.73	1.29	1.01
C. 51-60 Years of Age (N = 19)	M	4.99	5.67	4.39	4.11	4.11	5.64	5.67	5.64	4.97	5.52	5.90
	SD	.72	1.25	.66	.64	.63	.83	1.25	.96	.89	.90	.97
D. 61-70 Years of Age (N = 10)	M	4.78	5.82	4.38	3.88	3.90	5.35	5.82	5.83	5.13	5.47	5.87
	SD	1.06	.62	1.29	1.14	1.05	.62	.62	.66	.61	.61	.88
Differences												
AB	t	2.74*	2.04				2.49*	2.88*	3.63**	3.01**	3.12**	3.28**
AC	t	1.85						2.62*	2.72*	3.39**	3.14**	2.98**
AD	t	1.66					2.63*	4.18**	3.09**	3.67**	4.42**	3.23**
BC	t	2.07*	2.66*									

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

Table IIb
2b. Years of Experience as Principal
(Description, p. 34)

Background Data (February)		I. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	I. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	I. Sense of Direction 5	I. Sense of Progress 6	I. Sense of Contribution 8	I. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
A. 1 to 5 Years (N = 9)	M	5.90	4.91	3.76	5.28	4.67	4.03	6.17	5.22	4.60	6.66
	SD	.83	1.00	.95	.70	1.08	1.07	.61	.53	.54	1.20
B. 6 to 10 Years (N = 11)	M	5.69	5.21	3.86	5.65	4.71	3.83	5.78	4.97	4.28	6.20
	SD	.99	.85	.87	.91	.89	.32	1.02	.76	.48	.70
C. 11 to 15 Years (N = 6)	M	5.75	4.33	3.49	4.95	4.01	3.54	4.69	4.86	4.20	5.41
	SD	.49	.50	.27	.53	.36	.53	.76	.69	.50	.71
D. 16 Years and Over (N = 18)	M	5.57	4.53	3.20	5.01	3.93	3.79	5.21	4.73	4.08	5.39
	SD	.91	.95	.77	1.13	.82	.82	.74	.84	.73	.95
Differences											
AC								3.88**	3.82*		2.33*
AB								3.34**	3.60*		2.44**
BC								3.31*	2.13*		2.11*
BD			3.52**	1.38*	2.19*					1.95	1.99*

Table IIb (cont'd.)

(May)		2. I. Reaction to Organization	6. General Rating	3. I. Sense of Direction	4. I. Sense of Progress	7. I. Sense of Contribution	8. I. Sense of Togetherness	10. Getting Supplies	11. Supplying Information	12. Defining Responsibilities	13. Giving Approval	14. Communication with Principal
A. 1 to 5 Years (N = 9)	M	5.08	3.93	5.38	4.49	4.44	6.12	6.63	6.54	5.87	6.59	6.95
	SD	1.24	.78	1.10	1.08	.95	.79	.99	.37	1.06	.57	.92
B. 6 to 10 Years (N = 11)	M	4.94	4.33	5.33	4.45	4.25	5.62	5.85	5.81	5.43	5.68	6.12
	SD	.72	.73	.81	.67	.51	.96	1.34	1.15	.86	1.02	1.06
C. 11 to 15 Years (N = 6)	M	4.67	4.00	5.09	3.91	3.86	5.11	5.38	5.28	4.74	5.09	5.76
	SD	.85	.72	.81	1.13	.53	.69	.87	.54	.51	.57	.67
D. 16 Years and Over (N = 18)	M	5.01	4.02	5.39	4.50	4.03	5.49	5.87	5.77	5.02	5.27	5.72
	SD	.91	.90	.79	.79	.88	.54	.72	.67	.61	.91	.84
Differences												
AB	t						1.19		1.73		2.28*	1.75
AC	t						2.36*	2.36*	5.00**	2.26*	4.66**	2.53*
AD	t							2.21*	3.10**	2.56*	3.84**	3.35**

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Basic Abilities and Understandings

Table III
3. Recency of Graduate Study of Principals
(Description, p. 35)

Background Data		T. Reaction to Problem Selection (2)	T. Reaction to Organization (4)	General Rating (7b)	T. Sense of Direction (5)	T. Sense of Progress (6)	T. Sense of Contribution (8)	T. Sense of Togetherness (9)	Getting Supplies (10)	Supplying Information (11)	Defining Responsibilities (12)	Giving Approval (13)	Amount of T.-T. Communication (10a)	Breadth of T.-T. Communication (10b)	Communication with Principal (11)
(February)															
No Graduate Study Within Past Five Years (N = 15)	M	5.27	4.51	3.14	5.07	4.07	3.92	5.47					4.81	4.06	5.52
	SD	.83	.92	.65	1.09	.87	.72	.81					.54	.63	1.13
Graduate Study Within Past Five Years (N = 27)	M	5.78	4.85	3.68	5.24	4.32	3.67	5.47					5.04	4.37	5.88
	SD	.87	.95	.90	.90	1.01	.79	1.04					.75	.62	1.16
Differences	t	1.80		2.00*											
(May)		(2)	(6)	(3)	(4)	(7)	(8)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)			(14)	
No Graduate Study Within Past Five Years (N = 15)	M		4.74	3.86	5.35	4.27	4.28	5.69	5.73	5.76	5.18	5.51			6.07
	SD		.74	.74	.73	.78	.61	.65	1.19	1.02	.78	.86			.85
Graduate Study Within Past Five Years (N = 27)	M		5.08	4.16	5.31	4.46	4.03	5.61	6.16	5.93	5.39	5.71			6.15
	SD		1.02	.78	.93	.95	.89	.89	.95	.73	.92	1.07			1.10

No Significant Differences

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
   B. Intellectual Processes

Table IV

1. Philosophic Mindedness
   (Description, p. 36)

February (Schedule II)

Interview Data (Schedule II)		I. Reaction to Problem Selection (2)	I. Reaction to Organization (4)	General Rating (7b)	I. Sense of Direction (5)	I. Sense of Progress (6)	I. Sense of Contribution (8)	I. Sense of Togetherness (9)	Communication with Principal (11)
High (N = 11)	M	5.94	5.00	3.91	5.33	4.71	3.90	5.98	6.17
	SD	.92	1.11	.94	.66	1.01	1.07	.87	1.24
Medium (N = 13)	M	5.58	4.90	3.53	5.37	4.24	3.83	5.37	6.06
	SD	.93	.89	.80	1.24	.96	.55	.87	1.04
Low (N = 10)	M	5.60	4.38	3.39	5.17	4.24	3.62	5.11	5.67
	SD	.79	.94	.70	.97	1.00	.84	1.04	.73
Differences and Patterns of Differences									
High – Medium		∧	═	∧	═	∧	∧	∧	∧
High – Low		∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	2.07*	∧
Medium – Low		═	∧	∧	∧	═	∧	∧	∧

May

		General Rating (6)	I. Sense of Direction (3)	I. Sense of Progress (4)	I. Sense of Contribution (7)	I. Sense of Togetherness (8)	Supplying Information (11)	Defining Responsibilities (12)	Giving Approval (13)	Communication with Principal (14)
High (N = 11)	M	4.25	5.33	4.43	4.41	5.94	6.03	5.54	5.93	6.29
	SD	.61	1.04	.87	.85	.95	.79	1.09	.86	1.08
Medium (N = 13)	M	4.19	5.44	4.49	4.07	5.44	5.98	5.56	5.89	6.47
	SD	.85	.99	1.15	.84	.61	.68	.54	.71	.88
Low (N = 10)	M	3.78	5.25	4.34	3.97	5.54	5.68	4.98	5.27	5.61
	SD	1.01	.59	.71	.88	.77	1.21	.79	.99	.88
Differences and Patterns of Differences										
High – Medium		∧	∨	═	∧	∧	═	═	═	∨
High – Low		∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	∧	∧
Medium – Low		∧	∧	∧	∧	∨	∧	∧	∧	2.24*

I. THE QUALITIES OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
C. Motivation-Emotional Processes and Conditions

Table V

3. Principal's Attitudes (Description, p. 43)

February

Sentiments Inventory		2 — T. Reaction to Problem Selection	4 — T. Reaction to Organization	7b — General Rating	10a — Amount of T.-T. Communication	10b — Breadth of T.-T. Communication	11 — Communication with Principal
A-Scale: High (N = 11 Scores: +6 and Over)	M	5.81	4.54	3.31	4.63	4.13	5.37
	SD	.93	.35	.94	.68	.83	.93
Low (N = 11 Scores: -4 and Below)	M	5.48	4.56	3.50	5.02	4.26	5.89
	SD	1.01	1.01	.93	.77	.60	1.15
No Significant Differences							
F-Scale: High (N = 12 Scores: +10 and Over)	M	6.08	5.01	3.76	5.01	4.24	5.81
	SD	.71	.89	.97	.64	.49	.99
Low (N = 14 Scores: -1 and Below)	M	5.42	4.25	3.32	4.73	4.03	5.85
	SD	1.02	.84	.84	.64	.68	1.21
Differences	t	1.80*	2.14*				

May

Sentiments Inventory		2 — T. Reaction to Organization	6 — General Rating	3 — T. Sense of Direction	4 — T. Sense of Progress	7 — T. Sense of Contribution	8 — T. Sense of Togetherness	10 — Getting Supplies	11 — Supplying Information	12 — Defining Responsibilities	13 — Giving Approval	14 — Communication with Principal
A-Scale: High (N = 11 Scores: +6 and Over)	M	4.97	4.02	5.24	4.44	3.64	5.29	5.98	5.78	5.09	5.47	5.78
	SD	.82	.74	.63	.63	.81	.65	1.01	.64	.75	1.15	.83
Low (N = 11 Scores: -4 and Below)	M	4.54	3.89	5.02	4.17	4.24	5.52	5.77	5.72	5.14	5.55	6.07
	SD	.95	.97	1.02	1.21	.80	.82	.92	.67	.97	1.00	1.16
No Significant Differences												
F-Scale: High (N = 12 Scores: +10 and Over)	M	5.41	4.48	5.71	4.79	4.10	5.63	6.48	6.37	5.50	6.05	6.20
	SD	.96	.93	.96	.75	.70	.75	.68	.49	.76	.71	1.04
Low (N = 14 Scores: -1 and Below)	M	4.62	3.87	4.97	4.05	4.37	5.45	5.72	5.64	5.11	5.44	5.97
	SD	.93	.74	.86	1.07	.83	.83	1.11	.57	.99	.88	.98
Differences	t	2.04	1.79	1.97	1.94			1.98	3.30**		1.85	

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

1. Approach to Problems
   (Description, p. 45)

Table VI

February

Case Analysis Test		T. Reaction to Organization (4)	General Rating (7b)	T. Sense of Direction (5)	T. Sense of Progress (6)	T. Sense of Contribution (8)	T. Sense of Togetherness (9)	Communication with Principal (11)
A. Relations Building (N = 17)	M	4.62	3.24	4.91	4.08	3.54	5.49	5.74
	SD	1.12	1.03	1.08	1.14	.77	.97	1.33
B. Administration Centered (N = 12)	M	5.11	3.92	5.82	4.84	3.88	5.83	5.80
	SD	.79	.64	.80	.83	.57	.87	.92
Differences AB	t		1.97	2.39*	1.90			

May

Case Analysis Test		T. Reaction to Organization (2)	General Rating (6)	T. Sense of Direction (3)	T. Sense of Progress (4)	T. Sense of Contribution (7)	T. Sense of Togetherness (8)	Getting Supplies (10)	Supplying Information (11)	Defining Responsibilities (12)	Giving Approval (13)	Communication with Principal (14)
A. Relations Building (N = 17)	M	4.82	3.69	5.09	4.07	3.74	5.56	6.19	6.21	5.49	6.15	6.55
	SD	.98	.77	.85	.96	.83	.78	1.11	.78	.87	.64	.86
B. Administration Centered (N = 12)	M	5.26	4.51	5.64	4.95	4.44	5.66	5.87	5.82	5.22	5.52	5.77
	SD	.68	.79	.88	.75	.60	.86	.91	.99	.77	1.02	1.15
Differences AB	t		2.69*	1.63	2.56*	3.36**					1.98	2.01

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
A. Planning and Problem-solving Behavior

Table VII
2. Over-all Rating
(Description, p. 46)

Case Analysis Test		T. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T. Sense of Direction 5	T. Sense of Progress 6	T. Sense of Contribution 8	T. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
(February)										
A. High (N = 11)	M	5.00	3.55	5.29	4.27	3.62	5.58	4.83	4.34	5.86
	SD	1.06	.92	.96	.95	.80	1.01	.90	.77	.87
B. Middle (N = 20)	M	4.49	3.27	4.90	4.01	3.67	5.16	4.90	4.15	5.34
	SD	.75	.80	.87	.85	.72	.75	.56	.55	1.20
C. Low (N = 15)	M	4.89	3.73	5.55	4.55	4.03	5.77	4.99	4.24	6.26
	SD	.94	.79	.94	.95	.76	.96	.66	.63	1.04
Differences BC	t		1.63	2.04*	1.79		2.12*			2.31*

Table VII (contd.)

(May)		2 T. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
A. High (N = 11)	M	5.14	3.99	5.36	4.46	3.75	5.71	6.12	5.96	5.28	5.84	6.16
	SD	.94	.86	.66	.59	.89	.61	1.09	1.01	.78	.80	.77
B. Middle (N = 20)	M	4.74	3.87	5.13	4.12	3.91	5.38	5.85	5.90	4.80	5.44	5.95
	SD	.91	.90	.78	.98	.51	.75	1.07	.70	1.38	1.05	1.04
C. Low (N = 15)	M	5.15	4.36	5.59	4.77	4.68	5.82	6.04	5.88	5.56	5.77	6.28
	SD	.87	.70	1.02	.82	.76	.89	.92	.91	.88	.96	1.10
Differences												
AC	t					2.75*						
BC	t		1.72		1.94	3.49**				1.82		

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
1. Atmosphere in the Staff

Table VIII
a. Atmosphere
(Description, p. 47)

Interviewer Rating Sheet (Schedule II. C.)		I. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	I. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	I. Sense of Direction 5	I. Sense of Progress 6	I. Sense of Contribution 8	I. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of I.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of I.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
(February)											
A. Warm Friendly (N = 18) (1,2)***	M	5.69	4.89	3.77	5.23	4.41	4.03	5.66	5.21	4.26	5.97
	SD	1.02	.99	1.04	1.06	1.03	.80	.87	.80	.67	1.16
B. Middle Condition (N = 21) (3,4)	M	5.73	4.76	3.36	5.21	4.20	3.70	5.33	4.77	4.30	5.90
	SD	.73	.92	.65	.98	.92	.69	.96	.48	.64	.96
C. Hostile Defensive (N = 5) (5,6,7,8)	M	5.56	4.24	3.30	5.23	4.16	3.51	5.43	4.36	4.04	5.29
	SD	.89	.67	.43	.52	.43	.76	.95	.44	.44	.93
Differences											
AB	t								2.04*		
AC	t								2.16*		
BC	t								1.69		

***Scale points

Table VIII (contd.)

(May)		2. T. Reaction to Organization	6. General Rating	3. T. Sense of Direction	4. T. Sense of Progress	7. T. Sense of Contribution	8. T. Sense of Togetherness	10. Getting Supplies	11. Supplying Information	12. Defining Responsibilities	13. Giving Approval	14. Communication with Principal
A. Warm Friendly (N = 18)	M	5.26	4.30	5.41	4.53	4.41	5.76	6.19	5.96	5.40	5.68	6.12
	SD	.92	.69	.91	.83	.68	.86	.98	.79	.92	1.20	1.09
B. Middle Condition (N = 21)	M	4.84	4.01	5.31	4.39	4.00	5.48	5.94	5.89	5.29	5.72	6.19
	SD	.93	.91	.92	1.01	.88	.73	.99	.92	.70	.77	.96
C. Hostile Defensive (N = 5)	M	4.37	3.54	5.15	4.02	3.81	5.50	5.18	5.47	4.60	4.99	5.43
	SD	.74	.58	.47	.48	.60	.69	1.19	.64	.94	.71	.63
Differences												
AC	t	1.90	2.17*			1.73		1.86				
BC	t									1.77	1.86	

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
 B. Behavior with the Faculty
   1. Atmosphere in the Staff

Table IX
b. Focus of Effort
(Description, p. 47)

Interviewer Rating Sheet (Schedule II. C.)		T. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	T. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T. Sense of Direction 5	T. Sense of Progress 6	T. Sense of Contribution 8	T. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
(February)											
A. Teacher Growth Oriented (N = 15) (1,2)***	M	5.70	4.80	3.53	4.86	4.10	4.00	5.58	5.08	4.31	5.85
	SD	.97	1.01	1.01	.95	1.05	.89	.79	.76	.73	1.21
B. Middle Condition (N = 17) (3,4,5)	M	5.87	4.97	3.82	5.76	4.74	3.89	5.68	4.91	4.17	5.81
	SD	.81	.90	.63	.85	.73	.60	1.03	.67	.55	1.03
C. Task or Product Oriented (N = 12) (6,7,8)	M	5.43	4.39	3.08	4.90	3.86	3.47	5.06	4.68	4.29	5.93
	SD	.79	.78	.67	.79	.74	.70	.82	.54	.61	.90
Differences											
AB	t		1.75	2.93**	2.73**	1.96					
BC	t			2.67*	3.07**						

***Scale points

Table IX (contd.)

(May)		2 T. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
A. Teacher Growth Oriented (N = 15)	M	5.13	4.13	5.33	4.41	4.33	5.71	6.36	6.05	5.42	5.93	6.28
	SD	1.18	.75	.95	.94	.72	.83	.91	.82	.92	.85	.98
B. Middle Condition (N = 17)	M	5.06	4.34	5.47	4.51	4.26	5.74	5.75	5.81	5.10	5.42	5.85
	SD	.83	.78	.92	1.04	.74	.88	1.20	.98	.90	1.24	1.18
C. Task or Product Oriented (N = 12)	M	4.61	3.64	5.15	4.26	3.75	5.25	5.73	5.73	5.27	5.52	6.12
	SD	.65	.82	.65	.57	.85	.47	.81	.62	.68	.61	.69
Differences												
AC	t		2.24*									
BC	t					1.85		1.79				

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
  1. Atmosphere in the Staff

Table X
c. Focus of Field
(Description, p. 47)

Interviewer Rating Sheet (February)		T. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	T. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T. Sense of Direction 5	T. Sense of Progress 6	T. Sense of Contribution 8	T. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
A. Non-Self Centered (N = 16) (1,2)***	M	5.78	4.78	3.53	4.96	4.26	3.94	5.51	5.15	4.38	5.89
	SD	1.03	.96	.98	.86	.92	.89	.80	.69	.75	1.15
B. Middle Condition (N = 22) (3,4,5)	M	5.83	4.95	3.71	5.62	4.50	3.79	5.54	4.84	4.26	5.87
	SD	.73	.88	.67	.91	.88	.69	1.03	.65	.55	1.07
C. Self Centered (N = 4) (6,7,8)	M	5.11	3.87	2.82	4.23	3.49	3.28	5.05	4.45	3.90	5.57
	SD	.53	.78	.51	.74	.74	.57	.97	.48	.22	.68
Differences											
AC	t								1.83		
BC	t	1.81	2.17*	2.42*	2.76*	2.04					

***Scale points

Table X (contd.)

(May)		2 T. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
A. Non-Self Centered (N = 16)	M	5.25	4.18	5.41	4.47	4.31	5.81	6.17	5.94	5.34	5.88	6.19
	SD	1.05	.71	.82	.84	.73	.67	1.09	.75	.92	.71	.91
B. Middle Condition (N = 22)	M	4.89	4.26	5.51	4.57	4.23	5.56	5.76	5.88	5.19	5.46	5.98
	SD	.87	.81	.87	.80	.67	.89	1.10	.97	.90	1.17	1.13
C. Self Centered (N = 4)	M	4.23	2.91	4.44	3.54	3.01	4.90	5.86	5.43	5.15	5.25	5.94
	SD	.62	.30	.59	1.24	1.03	.39	.44	.48	.33	.47	.69
Differences												
AC	t		3.31**	2.12*		2.76*	2.47*					
BC	t		3.16**	2.27*	2.02	2.91**						

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
　1. Atmosphere in the Staff

Table XI
d. Use of Power
(Description, p. 48)

Interviewer Rating Sheet		T'. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	T'. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T'. Sense of Direction 5	T'. Sense of Progress 6	T'. Sense of Contribution 8	T'. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
(February)											
A. Controls Situation (N = 13) (1,2)***	M	5.13	4.27	3.05	4.72	3.74	3.64	5.37	4.55	4.00	5.36
	SD	.86	.81	.63	.97	.74	.78	.81	.60	.61	1.26
B. Middle Condition (N =19) (3,4,5)	M	5.97	4.98	3.74	5.69	4.65	3.74	5.50	4.98	4.35	5.95
	SD	.72	.90	.72	.89	.86	.63	1.08	.64	.62	.92
C. Releases Situation (N = 13) (6,7,8)	M	5.82	4.89	3.66	5.04	4.28	4.00	5.56	5.21	4.31	5.96
	SD	.84	.91	.97	.71	.90	.92	.76	.68	.63	1.24
Differences											
AB	t	2.70**	2.18*	2.73**	2.82**	2.99**			2.55**		
AC	t	3.09*	1.78*	1.85*	2.82**						

One tailed "t"*

**p<.05 points

TABULATIONS OF DATA

Table XI (contd.)

(May)		T. Reaction to Organization 2	General Rating 6	T. Sense of Direction 3	T. Sense of Progress 4	T. Sense of Contribution 7	T. Sense of Togetherness 8	Getting Supplies 10	Supplying Information 11	Defining Responsibilities 12	Giving Approval 13	Communication with Principal 14
A. Controls Situation (N = 12)	M	4.66	3.69	5.04	4.09	3.72	5.36	5.72	5.56	5.13	5.39	5.97
	SD	.75	.70	.70	.90	.96	.57	.86	.63	.73	.53	.80
B. Middle Condition (N = 19)	M	4.84	4.20	5.40	4.52	4.26	5.61	6.02	5.98	5.28	5.57	6.04
	SD	.92	.90	.95	.85	.64	.84	1.06	.97	.34	1.22	1.13
C. Releases Situation (N = 13)	M	5.42	4.25	5.51	4.54	4.36	5.80	6.06	6.00	5.34	5.90	6.21
	SD	.99	.70	.85	.91	.71	.84	.76	.78	1.00	.88	.99
Differences												
AB	t		1.57			1.85*					1.65	
AC	t	2.08*	1.90*			1.83*						

One tailed "t"

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
   2. Procedures and Processes Used by the Administrator

Table XII
a. Decision-Making in Selecting Problems
(Description, p. 48)

February

Teachers Indicated Decision Made By:		T. Reaction to Problem Selection (2)	T. Reaction to Organization (4)	General Rating (7b)	T. Sense of Direction (5)	T. Sense of Progress (6)	T. Sense of Contribution (8)	T. Sense of Togetherness (9)	Amount of T.-T. Communication (10a)	Breadth of T.-T. Communication (10b)	Communication with Principal (11)
T: Teacher or Teacher Committee (N = 14)	M	6.04	4.90	3.85	5.41	4.68	3.63	5.33	5.01	4.32	5.99
	SD	.76	.81	.76	.48	.77	.95	.80	.57	.50	.84
PST: Principal and Small Group of Teachers (N = 5)	M	5.60	5.10	3.40	5.45	4.01	3.94	5.99	5.10	4.37	6.14
	SD	.99	1.02	1.06	1.36	.79	.44	1.23	.77	.42	1.00
PT: Principal and Teacher Together (N = 5)	M	5.66	5.04	3.30	5.18	4.22	3.95	6.23	4.99	4.62	6.38
	SD	.70	.82	.50	.95	.48	.41	.60	.46	.76	.74
P: Principal (N = 7)	M	5.17	4.28	3.19	4.67	3.82	4.20	5.46	4.83	4.02	5.45
	SD	1.18	1.07	1.11	1.09	1.21	.83	1.58	.76	.80	1.49
S: Teachers Opinion Spread (N = 8)	M	5.38	4.39	3.28	5.01	3.94	3.60	5.22	4.98	4.13	4.94
	SD	.67	.85	.72	1.01	.85	.72	.77	.71	.44	2.16
D: Opinion Divided Between T and PST (N = 7)	M	5.71	4.84	3.50	5.41	4.36	3.58	4.93	4.54	3.99	5.59
	SD	.60	.70	.56	.77	.98	.57	.52	.79	.61	.72
Differences T and PT T and S PT and S PT and D		1.94			2.04	1.88		2.10* 2.31** 3.64**			

May

Teachers Indicated Decision Made By:		T. Reaction to Organization (2)	General Rating (6)	T. Sense of Direction (3)	T. Sense of Progress (4)	T. Sense of Contribution (7)	T. Sense of Togetherness (8)
T: Teacher or Teacher Committee (N = 14)	M	4.87	4.06	5.35	4.38	4.15	5.59
	SD	.99	1.33	.89	.87	.60	.91
PST: Principal and Small Group of Teachers (N = 5)	M	4.98	4.26	5.61	4.62	4.52	5.54
	SD	.69	.84	.93	.67	.56	.75
PT: Principal and Teacher Together (N = 5)	M	4.30	3.51	4.73	3.44	4.04	5.46
	SD	.61	.49	.85	.99	.82	.70
P: Principal (N = 7)	M	4.96	4.19	5.42	4.48	4.41	5.75
	SD	1.07	.46	.67	.78	.91	.66
S: Teachers Opinion Spread (N = 8)	M	5.49	4.12	5.61	4.87	3.93	5.70
	SD	.68	.87	.65	.79	1.10	.72
D: Opinion Divided Between T and PST (N = 7)	M	4.95	4.07	5.31	4.36	3.76	5.51
	SD	.93	.74	.66	.71	.43	.73
Differences		2.99*			2.64*	2.43*	

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
   2. Procedures and Processes Used by the Administrator
      b. Organizational Arrangement

Table XIII
(1) Size of Group
(Description, p. 49)

February

Principal Interview		4 T. Reaction to Organization	5 T. Sense of Direction	8 T. Sense of Contribution	10a Communication Amount of T.-T.	10b Communication Breadth of T.-T.	11 Communication with Principal
S: Small Groups Only (N = 5)	M	4.92	5.26	3.12	4.83	4.12	5.96
	SD	.69	.69	.60	.58	.44	.73
ST: Small Groups and Total Group or Coord. Committee (N = 8)	M	4.17	5.02	3.57	4.88	4.19	5.41
	SD	.95	.88	1.10	.54	.34	1.60
STC: Small Groups with Coord. Committee and Total Staff (N = 19)	M	5.00	5.27	3.88	5.05	4.52	5.85
	SD	1.00	.75	.68	.69	.66	1.11
T: Total Staff Group Only (N = 7)	M	4.85	5.62	4.01	4.65	3.82	5.93
	SD	1.17	1.24	.52	.80	.66	1.11
Differences							
S and STC	t			2.18*			
S and T	t	1.94		2.47*			
ST and STC	t						
STC and T	t					2.27*	

May

Principal Interview		2 T. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
S: Small Groups Only (N = 5)	M	4.99	3.50	5.42	4.16	4.25	6.19	6.03	5.10	5.37	5.93
	SD	1.10	1.01	.83	1.01	.60	.66	.68	.75	.94	.89
ST: Small Groups and Total Group or Coord. Committee (N = 8)	M	4.88	4.02	5.61	4.57	3.71	5.80	6.06	5.28	6.01	6.39
	SD	.85	.64	.86	.73	1.40	.83	.79	1.14	.73	1.10
STC: Small Groups with Coord. Committee and Total Staff (N = 19)	M	5.05	4.13	5.38	4.40	4.06	5.48	5.80	5.28	5.63	6.14
	SD	1.13	.79	.88	1.06	.80	.70	.71	.89	.25	1.01
T: Total Staff Group Only (N = 7)	M	5.87	4.28	5.46	4.48	4.31	5.78	6.01	5.40	5.71	6.13
	SD	.54	.58	.69	.65	.59	.74	1.28	.92	1.06	1.15
Differences											
S and STC	t						1.94				
S and T	t									1.94	
ST and STC	t										
STC and T	t										

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
  B. Behavior with the Faculty
    2. Procedures and Processes Used by the Administrator
      b. Organizational Arrangements

Table XIV
(2) Grade and Interest Groups
(Description, p. 50)

February

Principal Interview		4. T. Reaction to Organization	5. T. Sense of Direction	8. T. Sense of Contribution	10a. Amount of T.-T. Communication	10b. Breadth of T.-T. Communication	11. Communication with Principal
A. Grade Groupings (N = 26) Average School Staff Size 20.44	M	4.59	4.88	3.62	4.86	4.28	5.79
	SD	1.00	.87	.75	.63	.59	1.27
B. Interest Groupings (N = 8) Average School Staff Size 19.71	M	4.65	5.46	4.07	4.93	4.42	5.49
	SD	.85	.67	1.00	.55	.61	1.02
C. Total Staff Only (N = 7) Average School Staff Size 11.29	M	4.85	5.62	4.01	4.65	3.82	5.93
	SD	1.17	1.24	.52	.80	.66	1.11
Differences							
AB	t						1.75
AC	t						1.71

May

Principal Interview		2. T. Reaction to Organization	6. General Rating	3. T. Sense of Direction	4. T. Sense of Progress	7. T. Sense of Contribution	8. T. Sense of Togetherness	11. Supplying Information	12. Defining Responsibilities	13. Giving Approval	14. Communication with Principal
A. Grade Groupings (N = 26) Average School Staff Size 20.44	M	4.72	3.78	5.20	4.21	3.97	5.51	5.98	5.39	5.85	6.31
	SD	1.45	1.24	.84	.95	.56	.66	.72	.86	.74	.94
B. Interest Groupings (N = 8) Average School Staff Size 19.71	M	5.04	4.24	5.75	4.57	4.25	5.85	5.58	4.74	5.11	5.68
	SD	.82	.53	.83	.74	.84	.80	.94	1.71	1.34	1.47
C. Total Staff Only (N = 7) Average School Staff Size 11.29	M	4.87	4.28	5.46	4.48	4.32	5.78	6.01	5.40	5.71	6.13
	SD	.54	.58	.69	.65	.59	.74	1.28	.92	1.07	1.08
Differences											
AB	t										1.94

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
2. Procedures and Processes Used by the Administrator
b. Organizational Arrangements

Table XV

(3) Principal Participation in Curriculum Activities
(Description, p. 50)

Principal Interview		February 4 — T. Reaction to Organization	February 5 — T. Sense of Direction	February 8 — T. Sense of Contribution	February 10a — Amount of T.-T. Communication	February 10b — Breadth of T.-T. Communication	February 11 — Communication with Principal	May 2 — T. Reaction to Organization	May 6 — General Rating	May 3 — T. Sense of Direction	May 4 — T. Sense of Progress	May 7 — T. Sense of Contribution	May 8 — T. Sense of Togetherness	May 11 — Supplying Information	May 12 — Defining Responsibilities	May 13 — Giving Approval	May 14 — Communication with Principal
A. Principal Out (N = 13)	M	4.39	4.83	3.64	4.57	4.09	5.86	4.72	3.64	5.17	4.15	4.10	5.64	5.80	5.19	5.51	6.06
	SD	.88	1.05	.80	.55	.51	.92	.90	.80	.68	.75	.88	.73	.81	.72	.92	.83
B. Principal In Total Staff Group Only (N = 13)	M	4.69	5.13	4.01	5.13	4.53	5.95	4.93	4.06	5.40	4.45	4.22	5.79	6.08	5.59	5.82	6.58
	SD	1.15	.83	.92	.56	.58	1.59	1.21	.72	1.13	1.21	1.00	.94	.67	1.12	1.27	1.13
C. Principal In Total Staff and In One or More Subgroup (N = 9)	M	5.18	5.48	3.48	5.04	4.33	5.21	5.41	4.36	5.69	4.64	3.74	5.55	5.72	4.93	5.48	5.71
	SD	.76	.39	.55	.77	.73	.64	.73	.69	.59	.57	.44	.32	.67	.64	.54	.71
Differences																	
AB	t				2.49*	2.04											
AC	t	2.09*					1.76	1.81	2.12*	1.78							
BC	t													1.76			1.95

II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
B. Behavior with the Faculty
  2. Procedures and Processes Used
    by the Administrator
    c. Communication in the School

Table XVI
(1) Communication Patterns
(Description, p. 52)

Teacher Questionnaire (February)		T. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	T. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T. Sense of Direction 5	T. Sense of Progress 6	T. Sense of Contribution 8	T. Sense of Togetherness 9	Communication with Principal 11
HHH: High Communication (N = 10)	M	5.85	5.14	3.68	5.35	4.41	4.26	6.04	6.80
	SD	.92	.89	1.15	.87	.88	.78	.93	.57
HHL: High Among Teachers, Low to Principal (N = 4)	M	5.25	4.28	3.43	5.18	4.30	3.31	5.79	4.77
	SD	.28	.70	.24	.53	.35	.65	.63	.75
LLH: Low Among Teachers, High to Principal (N = 4)	M	5.46	4.61	3.33	5.19	4.21	3.56	5.18	6.54
	SD	.31	.75	.71	1.14	1.05	.26	.75	.29
LLL: Low Communication (N = 9)	M	5.22	3.95	2.80	4.32	3.34	3.41	4.53	4.76
	SD	1.12	.87	.77	1.05	.78	.93	.64	.37
Differences									
HHH and LLL	*		2.70**	1.83*	2.11*	2.64**	2.05*	3.85**	
HHH and HHL	*						2.00*		
HHH and LLH	*						2.22*		
HHL and LLL	*					2.18*		3.02**	

One tailed "t"

TABULATIONS OF DATA

Table XVI (contd.)

(May)		2 T. Reaction to Organization	6 General Rating	3 T. Sense of Direction	4 T. Sense of Progress	7 T. Sense of Contribution	8 T. Sense of Togetherness	10 Getting Supplies	11 Supplying Information	12 Defining Responsibilities	13 Giving Approval	14 Communication with Principal
HHH: High Communication (N = 10)	M	5.25	4.15	5.52	4.53	4.67	5.81	6.36	6.33	5.98	6.40	6.96
	SD	1.13	.90	1.09	1.00	.76	.71	.90	.65	.68	.72	.37
HHL: High Among Teachers, Low to Principal (N = 4)	M	4.29	3.56	5.02	4.12	3.67	6.17	4.83	5.20	4.00	4.29	4.89
	SD	.67	.79	.36	.47	.33	.22	.57	.46	.52	1.13	.54
LLH: Low Among Teachers, High to Principal (N = 4)	M	4.31	3.20	4.87	3.79	3.77	5.02	6.69	6.28	5.68	5.97	6.80
	SD	1.34	2.14	1.38	1.74	.97	.74	.36	.32	.31	.39	.48
LLL: Low Communication (N = 9)	M	4.86	3.79	5.19	4.29	3.67	5.18	5.55	5.48	4.81	5.40	5.63
	SD	.57	.51	.43	.46	.93	.57	.75	.50	.43	.30	.31
Differences												
HLH and LLL	t					2.45*	2.04*	2.01*	2.31*	3.22**	3.69**	8.07**
HHH and HHL	t					2.36*		2.93**	2.98**	4.87**	3.87**	7.70**
HHL and LLH	t						2.60**	4.78**	3.35**	4.81**	2.43*	4.61**
HHL and LLL	t						3.13**			2.72*	2.51*	2.60*
LLH and LLL	t							2.66*	2.62*	3.02**	2.19*	4.25**

One tailed "t"

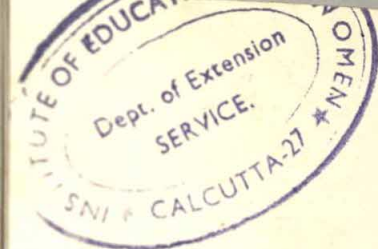II. THE BEHAVIOR OF THE ADMINISTRATOR
   B. Behavior with the Faculty
      2. Procedures and Processes Used
         by the Administrator
         c. Communication in the School

Table XVII
(3) The Principal's Working Relations
with the Staff and Communication
(Description, p. 54)

Teacher Questionnaire (February)		T. Reaction to Problem Selection 2	T. Reaction to Organization 4	General Rating 7b	T. Sense of Direction 5	T. Sense of Progress 6	T. Sense of Contribution 8	T. Sense of Togetherness 9	Amount of T.-T. Communication 10a	Breadth of T.-T. Communication 10b	Communication with Principal 11
A. Principal Out (High Communication) (N = 5)	M	5.36	4.96	3.23	5.34	4.42	3.70	5.75	4.80	4.19	6.89
	SD	.87	.78	.85	.81	.98	.80	.17	.34	.41	.43
B. Principal Out (Low Communication) (N = 7)	M	4.96	3.97	3.02	4.44	3.59	3.65	4.82	4.49	3.99	5.15
	SD	.79	.77	.77	1.12	.90	.82	.72	.62	.60	.41
C. Principal In (High Communication) (N = 12)	M	5.95	5.13	3.71	5.27	4.32	4.23	5.92	5.20	4.77	6.67
	SD	.82	.86	.90	.82	.94	.75	.76	.49	.51	.69
D. Principal In (Low Communication) (N = 9)	M	5.80	4.60	3.55	5.28	4.16	3.33	5.14	4.89	4.11	4.62
	SD	.72	.79	.45	.58	.35	.58	.90	.80	.63	.57
Differences	AB		1.99					2.59*			6.46**
	AD	2.44*	2.81*		1.75	1.58		2.92**	2.61*	2.86*	6.34**
	BC	2.09			1.62	1.63	2.83*	2.03		2.53*	5.03**
	BD										6.92**

TABULATIONS OF DATA

Table XVII (contd.)

(May)		T. Reaction to Organization 2	General Rating 6	T. Sense of Direction 3	T. Sense of Progress 4	T. Sense of Contribution 7	T. Sense of Togetherness 8	Getting Supplies 10	Supplying Information 11	Defining Responsibilities 12	Giving Approval 13	Communication with Principal 14
A. Principal Out (High Communication) (N = 5)	M	5.27	4.07	5.41	4.56	4.51	5.90	6.77	6.65	5.91	6.42	6.95
	SD	.73	.73	.86	.88	.58	.47	.46	.12	.36	.45	.59
B. Principal Out (Low Communication) (N = 7)	M	4.53	3.52	4.90	4.04	3.78	5.42	5.61	5.29	4.82	5.07	5.59
	SD	.91	.72	.25	.49	.98	.75	1.02	.60	.46	.56	.26
C. Principal In (High Communication) (N = 12)	M	5.07	4.11	5.39	4.41	4.39	5.74	6.48	6.18	5.98	6.23	6.94
	SD	1.32	.86	1.22	1.29	.95	.82	.74	.59	.50	.69	.48
D. Principal In (Low Communication) (N = 9)	M	5.15	4.29	5.66	4.62	3.64	5.56	5.09	5.47	4.28	4.85	5.11
	SD	.65	.50	.45	.43	.42	.65	.62	.50	.51	.94	.62
Differences												
AB	t		2.38*	3.79**	2.39*			2.17	4.54**	4.04**	4.10**	4.97**
AD	t							4.90**	4.81**	5.85**	3.25**	5.04**
BC	t					3.02**		2.02	2.99**	4.76**	3.57**	6.51**
BD	t									2.02*		
CD	t					2.10*		4.34**	2.80*	7.26**	3.67**	7.25**

APPENDIX B

SCHEDULES AND QUESTIONNAIRES

Copies of all of the schedules and questionnaires used in this study which are not published elsewhere are included in this Appendix. They are arranged in the following manner:

I. Instructions to Interviewers

A. Principles of Interviewing

This is a structured interview. We want to be able to add responses together; therefore, questions (stimuli) need to be the same. We only need to know the answer, and not lots of extraneous material.

Getting the person's own answer means:

   a. He feels free to say whatever he thinks (rapport).
   b. He has some idea what you are asking him.
   c. He does not know what answer you think is "good."
   d. You do not suggest possible answers to him.

144

SCHEDULES AND QUESTIONNAIRES

a. It is important that the interviewee (and you also) feel at ease in the situation before the actual interview begins. Talking about your own interests, general aspects of the school, etc., may help. It may be very important that he get a chance to know you a little bit before he will feel free to talk to you. Further discussion about the Study and S.C.D.S. may be needed.

He must also feel that you recognize differences, and are not judging him. This may require some feeling of accepting his "gripes," and that "griping" is OK if he feels like it.

b. The questions (we hope) will communicate their intended meanings. However, rewording may be required, but be careful to communicate the meaning of the question without suggesting answers. (Avoid "for example's.")

c. Re-emphasize your acceptance of differences as being OK or your naiveté about his situation and his problems.

d. This may require that you talk, sometimes, without saying anything new.

Inasmuch as this interview is structured, you will need to keep control of it and keep it moving along. You may have to cut in on occasions, affirming your interest in what is being said, but indicate need to hurry along in order to conserve his time. You can indicate you want to finish the interview so you will have time to visit with him in general at the end of it.

If responses get too wordy, you can stop it by asking something like, "Then if I understand you correctly, you'd say........." Be careful to use his words if at all possible, so you don't put words in his mouth.

B. Instructions For Administering Teacher Questionnaire
(May Form)

1. General Introduction:

   a. General purpose of S.C.D.S.:

   "I represent the School-Community Development Study at The Ohio State University, which is one of eight centers in the nation under the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration. These centers are largely supported by the Kellogg Foundation and have as their purpose the improvement of the preparation program of school administrators."

   b. Purposes of this study:

   (1) To aid the _____ Schools in developing plans for future curriculum activities.

   (2) To supply the School-Community Development Study with data which will contribute to the understandings of the roles of educational administrators.

   c. "As you folks recall, we were in _____ in February to gather information about the curriculum study activities. Now that the school year is almost at a close, we're interested to get a picture of the total year's activities."

2. Purposes of this Questionnaire:

"We need to know from the teachers themselves how they feel about various aspects of the curriculum study activities. We know, as I am sure you do, that each of us has different ideas and reactions about different parts of such a program."

"As you will remember, we are not interested in evaluating the _____ Schools or any particular school. Only the professional people in _____ can decide what is 'good' for their own particular school or school system."

"We are interested in understanding what goes on in schools, and particularly how different kinds of school administration affect the school program. This is the kind of learning we need if we are going to help improve the preparation of school administrators."

"We hope that you will give best thought to these questions in order that the findings of the study will be most useful to the _____ Schools and the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration."

"All data are confidential to the study and all findings returned to _____ will not identify individuals or schools in any way."

"Next week we expect to have a brief written report for each of you of a few of the findings from the data we gathered in February."

"Are there any questions?"

3. Administration:

a. Pass out questionnaires using consecutive numbered questionnaires. If more than one school is involved, pass out to the schools separately asking teachers from one school to take the first group of questionnaires you pass out; teachers from second group to take second group of questionnaires. Record the number in the series where the change occurs.

b. "Please remove the card from the inside of the questionnaire. Fill in your name and school. As soon as this card is completed, please pass it (to the aisle)."

"As soon as the card is filled out, please read the directions at the head of the questionnaire and go ahead. If you have questions, please raise your hand and I shall be pleased to answer them. Please be sure to fill in each item on the questionnaire."

c. "As you finish this three page questionnaire please complete the single sheet which I will pass out to you in a few minutes. I will collect the two questionnaires separately." (If these are two or more schools: "I have placed the names of your (2) schools on the board along with a number. Please place the appropriate number at the top of the single sheet.")

(When an individual has completed his three page questionnaire, pick it up and immediately glance through it to be sure he has omitted no question or rating. If omissions are found, press him to complete it. Obviously, gather these in a pile separate from that of the single-page questionnaire.)

Notes:

a. Make every attempt to create a non-evaluative atmosphere for filling out questionnaires and to reduce any anxieties which may arise.

II. Principal Interview Schedules
(February)

A. Principal Interview

Code _____

Date _____

Time _____ to _____

"As you know, we are interested in how the curriculum study activities have developed in the elementary schools this year as well as in more general problems of school administration. I'd like to ask first about the particular activities which are being carried on in your school."

1a. "What are the problems which have been selected for study in your school?" (get documents, if available, of topics and organization)

1b. "Has the faculty been organized in any particular way to work on these problems?" (number of groups, number of teachers, and/or others in each group, and tasks assigned to each group; frequency and type of meetings)

(Probe if needed) "Are there some activities being carried on by individuals?"

1c. "Are there any of the teachers who are not taking an active part in these activities?" (list names, probe for individual reasons) "Is there any particular reason why Miss _____ is not taking part?"

Names:

Reasons:

2. "How did you go about making the selection of the particular problems to work on this year?" (press for particular events)

(We - I):

"Who made the decision?" Principal _____ Principal and small group of teachers _____
Principal and teachers together _____ Teachers _____ Other _____

(Use either 2a or 2b below, whichever [is] appropriate):

a. (If group made decision): "Were there any teachers who were in disagreement with the selection which was made?"

"What did they do?"

b. (If decision made by principal alone): "How did the teachers feel about the problems that were selected?"

3. "Who are the teachers who have been most interested in working on these problems?" (get name, reminding principal of impersonalness of study, etc.)

Names: Reasons for interest:

4. "Who are the teachers who have not been particularly interested in working on these problems?"

Names: Reasons for lack of interest:

4. "What sorts of things are you hoping to accomplish this year through the curriculum study activities?"

(We - I)

(Probe if we is used): "Have you, yourself, set up any specific goals or results you would like to see accomplished by the end of the year?"

Goals: (Check if process goal)

"Are there any others?"

generally confused, '   '   '   '   ' clear,
vague   explicit

6. "What do you personally believe that your teachers are hoping, in general, to get from their participation in the curriculum activities?"

Goals: (Check if process goal)

"Are there any others?"

generally confused, '   '   '   '   ' clear,
vague   explicit

1. "After the study problems were selected, what did you see as the problems you faced in getting the curriculum study under way?"

"Are there any others?"

(Analyze free responses and rate while P completes morale scales)

a. Comprehensiveness (concern with long range goals, sees "big picture," tolerance for theoretical considerations)

                        L '   '   '   '   ' H

b. Penetration (questions what teachers take for granted, recognizes fundamental ideas, assumptions, looks beneath surface)

                        L '   '   '   '   ' H

c. Flexibility (sees issues as many-sided, tentative, lack of "set" in attacking problems, judges ideas apart from source)

                        L '   '   '   '   ' H

8. (Morale measure: Hand the principal the morale sheet (B. Subschedule 1) checked P and say):

"We know that in working activities such as these there are times when things seem to click better than others. Would you check on these four scales indicating how you, as principal, feel about them as of this week."

(When finished, take back that sheet and THEN hand them sheet marked T and say):

"Now would you estimate as best you can how you think the teachers in your school, on the average, would make these ratings this week?"

APPENDICES

7. "What things do you think are important to consider in determining whether the curriculum activities have been worth while?"

"Now let me turn to two or three general questions, and then I'll be finished:"

8a. "Generally speaking, as you see it, what really are the main jobs of an elementary school principal in curriculum development in his school?"

8b. "What do you see as the responsibilities of the teachers in curriculum development in the school?"

9. "How might the central office be of more help to you in furthering curriculum development?"

10a. "In what ways do you think a study such as we are conducting can be of most help to the _____ elementary principals?"

10b. "What questions or problems should we pay particular attention to in developing our findings?"

(Request P not to discuss this interview with any other principals until all have been interviewed.)

B. Subschedule 1
(See item 6)

Code _____

P   T

On each of the scales below please check at any place which represents your feelings:

6a. Do you have a feeling you know where you are going in these activities?

| ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' |
| Confused, see no direction for myself as yet | | | Some idea, but not very definite yet | | | | I feel a definite direction for myself |

6b. Do you feel you are getting any place?

| ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' |
| "Bogged down," see little progress | | | Making fairly satisfactory progress | | | Making excellent progress |

6c. How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty are able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?

| ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' |
| Need considerable outside help, staff has limited resources | | Able to make much of the needed contribution with little outside help | | | Able to make all the contribution required for our school |

6d. How close a working relationship do you feel you have with others on the faculty?

| ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' | ' |
| Each going his own way | | | Rather casual but generally cooperative | | Very close, everybody pulling together |

C. Interviewer Rating Sheet

Code _____

Rate on following scales immediately following the interview:

Atmosphere of the interview situation itself: hostile defensive   8   7   6   5   4   3   2   1   warm friendly

Comments:

SCHEDULES AND QUESTIONNAIRES

From your total observations, rate the principal's relations with the teachers on the following:

											Rank*
Atmosphere:	hostile defensive	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	warm friendly	_____
Focus of effort:	task or product	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	teacher growth	_____
Focus of field:	self-centered	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	non-self centered	_____
Use of power:	controls situation	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	releases situation	_____

*At end of week rank your entire set of interviews on each of these four scales indicating for each interview its relative standing [e.g. 6/9] in this column.)

Building: old   modern   new;   dirty   clean;   well-managed   poorly managed

Neighborhood: Upper   Middle   Lower   Depressed

Student body: White _____ %   Negro _____ %

Protestant _____ %   Catholic _____ %   Jewish _____ %

III.   Teacher Questionnaire
(February)

A.   Code Card

Questionnaire No. _____

Name _____   School _____

Years teaching experience (including present year) _____

Years teaching in this building _____

What grade(s) do you teach? _____

What special subjects (if any)? _____

B.   Teacher Questionnaire

This questionnaire is a part of the study of the curriculum activities being conducted in _____ this year. Data from this study will be used by the elementary schools in planning future curriculum work. All data are confidential to the research program, and no individual or school will be identified in the reports. Your frank responses are needed if the general findings are to be most useful to your schools.

On each of the scales below please check at any place which represents your feelings. Write any comments you wish which would help make your rating clearer or help describe the particular activities being carried on in your school.

*   *   *

Part A: The questions in this first section refer to the particular curriculum study activities which have been developed in your school this year.

1. In what ways do you believe your participation in the activities of the curriculum study is being of help to you in your own teaching?

2. How did you personally feel about the curriculum study problems when they were selected by your building group?

Well thought out, good selection	Rather well thought out, but other problems not sufficiently considered	None of the problems given sufficient consideration

Comments:

APPENDICES

3. Who did you feel made the actual selection of the problems which were to be studied in your building?

_____ the principal
_____ the principal and a select group of teachers
_____ the teachers themselves
_____ (other) _____

4. What is your reaction to the way the teachers in your building are organized for the curriculum study?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Not an effective
use of time and
energy

Fairly satisfactory
but could be improved

Very effective
use of time
and energy

Comments:

5. Do you have a feeling you know where you are going in these activities?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Confused, see
no direction
for myself as yet

Some idea, but
not very
definite yet

I feel
a definite
direction
for myself

Comments:

6. Do you feel you are getting any place?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

"Bogged down,"
see little
progress

Making fairly
satisfactory
progress

Making
excellent
progress

Comments:

7a. What things do you think are important to consider in determining whether the curriculum study activities have been worth-while?

7b. In general, how would you rate the curriculum study activities so far this year?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Seem
unprofitable
to me

Quite
valuable
to me

Extremely
helpful
to me

Comments or suggestions for improvement:

Part B: The questions in this section refer to the more general aspects of the school which are often included in a broad definition of curriculum development.

8. How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty are able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Need considerable
outside help, staff
has limited resources

Able to make much of
the needed contribu-
tion with little out-
side help

Able to make all
the contribution
required for our
school

Comments:

9. How close a working relationship do you feel you have with others on the faculty?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Each going
his own way

Rather casual,
but generally
cooperative

Very close,
everybody
pulling together

Comments:

10a. How often do you find yourself talking informally with other teachers in the building about important curriculum problems?

SCHEDULES AND QUESTIONNAIRES

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Infrequently   Rather frequently   Every day

Comments:

10b. With whom do you usually talk about these problems?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Only one or   Several others   Anyone in the
two others   in the building   building I meet

Comments:

11. Do you find it easy to talk with the principal about your ideas and suggestions for the school?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Difficult, hard   Rather easy, if   Easy for me
to find an   I have a very   at any time
opportunity   good idea

Comments:

12a. How could your principal be of more help to you in furthering curriculum development?

12b. How could the central office staff be of more help to you in furthering curriculum development?

13. What do you see as the particular responsibilities of teachers like yourself in curriculum development?

IV. Principal Interview Schedules
(May)

A. Principal Interview #2

Code _____

Date _____

Time _____ to _____

"We are interested this time in getting an over-all picture of the curriculum study activities for the entire year. First, I'd like to bring our general information up to date."

1a. "What kinds of curriculum study activities have been carried on in your school since we were here in February?" (get new documents, if available, of topics and organization)

(Probe if necessary: Have changes occurred in the problem(s) selected?)

1b. "Last time you gave us some information about how your staff was organized for these curriculum study activities this year. Do you recall how much attention was given to the problem of getting organized for these activities?"

1c. "In order to get a clear picture of the general organizational pattern for this year let me check a few things with you. Was your school usually organized as a total staff, or in small groups?"

Total Group
Size _____

Small Groups
No. _____ Size _____

(Probe if both are indicated: "What kinds of activities go on in each?")
(Interviewer check following questions with X or 0)

1. Is the group used for:

	Total Group	Small Groups
Making decisions?		
Making recommendations?		
or learning?		

2. Is the principal a participating member of the group?

3. Are outsiders used as resource   Total Group   Small Groups
persons?   (regularly)
                  (occasionally)   _____   _____

4. Are the small groups - (check)?

   grade level _____, grade groups _____, interest or problem group _____.

5. Did the small groups report their activities? Yes _____ No _____

   To whom: to each other _____, to principal _____,
           to total staff _____, to (other) _____,
                                   _____

6. Is there a coordinating or planning committee? Yes _____ No _____

2. "What sorts of things have been accomplished this year through the curriculum study activities?"

generally confused,   '   '   '   '   '   clear,
vague   explicit

3. "What do you believe that your teachers, as individuals, have gained from their participation in the curriculum activities?"

(List gains)

generally confused,   '   '   '   '   '   clear,
vague   explicit

4a. "As you look back over the year's curriculum study activities, what, if anything, do you wish you had done differently?"
(Probe for free discussion concerning both what and why)

4b. (If not already discussed) "Have you gotten any ideas or plans about what you would like to see happen in your school next year?"

(Note for 4a and 4b: new knowledge, procedures, or insights secured; clearer diagnosis or analysis of conditions, etc. Rate responses on scales below while P completes items 5 and 6)

a. Comprehension: '   '   '   '   '
                        L   H

Low: Sees particulars in isolation; concerned chiefly with immediate accomplishments and the "practical" aspects of the activities.

High: Sees year's work as a whole; shows concern for long-range and enduring goals or values; considers the theoretical aspects of the activities.

b. Penetration: '   '   '   '   '
                   L   H

Low: Does not examine basic assumptions; attributes success or failure to superficial causes; fails to grasp the meaning of what has happened for future planning.

High: Questions what was taken for granted or assumed; recognizes the fundamental or underlying factors; sensitive to implications and relevance among factors and to future planning.

c. Flexibility: '   '   '   '
                   L   H

Low: Does not consider what was not done; has a "pat" or dogmatic explanation of what happened; discusses "personalities" rather than issues or ideas.

High: Sees other ways in which things could have been done; suggests alternate explanations and meanings for what happened and welcomes counter suggestions.

5. (Hand the principal the morale sheet (B. Subschedule 1) checked P and say): "Looking at the year's curriculum study activities as a whole, would you check on these four scales indicating how you, as principal, feel about them?"

(When finished, take back that sheet and THEN hand him the sheet marked T and say): "Now would you estimate as best you can how you think the teachers in your school on the average would make these ratings?"

6. (Hand him B. Subschedule 2)
"From the impression gathered in February there seemed to be a variety of opinion

about what both teachers and principals felt were important outcomes of curriculum study activities. Would you check on this sheet the two phrases which you think most important to consider in determining if curriculum study activities have been worth while?"

(When finished marking both parts of that sheet (6a and 6b):
"Could you also indicate by checking in the margin the two phrases in this list which you believe to be of least importance in evaluating curriculum activities?"

7. "We also got the impression that there were a variety of opinions about the responsibilities of teachers and principals in these activities. Would you help us clarify this impression by checking this sheet?"
(Hand him B. Subschedule 3)

8. "As you know the major report of our findings will come at the elementary principals' conference in the fall. Thinking ahead to that time, what questions do you think the principals' group might want this study to give major attention to?"

B. Subschedule 1
(See item 5)

Code _____

P   T

On each of the scales below please check at any place which represents your feelings:

5a. Did you have a feeling you knew where you were going in these activities?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Confused, saw no direction for myself				Had some idea, but not very definite				I felt a definite direction for myself

5b. Did you feel you were getting any place in these activities this spring?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
"Bogged down," saw little progress				Made fairly satisfactory progress				Made excellent progress

5c. How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty were able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Needed considerable outside help, staff had limited resources				Were able to make much of the needed contribution with little outside help				Were able to make all the contribution required for our school

5d. How close a working relationship have you felt you had with others on the faculty?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Each has gone his own way				Rather casual but generally cooperative				Very close, everybody pulling together

C. Subschedule 2
(See item 6)

Code _____

6a. Please check from the list below the two (2) phrases which, in your opinion, best complete this sentence:

"Curriculum study activities are most worth while when they result in ...

1. _____ better selection of textbooks and teaching materials."

2. _____ greater personal satisfaction of the teachers in doing their job."

3. _____ changes in the teachers' day-to-day behavior in the classrooms."

4. _____ agreements and decisions about curriculum problems in the school.*

5. _____ more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff.*

6. _____ greater community participation in curriculum planning.*

7. _____ greater willingness to really try out ideas in the classroom.*

8. _____ general agreement that the study activities have been worth while.*

6b. Please circle the number of any of the areas above in which you feel significant improvement has been made in your own school this past year as a result of the curriculum study activities.

D. Subschedule 3
(See item 7)

Code _____

7. There is a wide range of opinion about how effective curriculum development work gets done, and where the responsibilities rest for its accomplishment. Please rate each of the statements below by marking each of them according to the following scale:

1 - This is entirely a responsibility of the administration of the school.

2 - This is predominantly a responsibility of the administration with active teacher participation.

3 - This is equally a responsibility of the administration and the teachers.

4 - This is predominantly a responsibility of the teachers with active administration participation.

5 - This is entirely a responsibility of the teachers.

6 - This is not an important responsibility of either the teacher or the administration.

a. _____ To attend the curriculum meetings and workshops which are held.

b. _____ To apply or carry out the decisions reached in curriculum meetings.

c. _____ To experiment with new ideas and procedures.

d. _____ To suggest changes in the present curriculum.

e. _____ To make decisions about changes in the curriculum of the school.

f. _____ To work with parents on curriculum problems.

g. _____ To select textbooks and teaching materials.

h. _____ To examine the total school curriculum and its effectiveness.

i. _____ To improve the teaching activities within the individual classroom.

V. Teacher Questionnaire
(May)

A. Code Card

Questionnaire No. _____ __

Name _____

School _____

B. Teacher Questionnaire #2

Questionnaire No. _____

This questionnaire is a part of the study of the curriculum activities being conducted

in _____ this year. Data from this study will be used by the elementary schools in planning future curriculum work. All data are confidential to the research program, and no individual or school will be identified in the reports. Your frank responses are needed if the general findings are to be most useful to your schools.

On each of the scales below please check at any place which represents your feelings. Write any comments you wish which would help make your rating clearer or help describe the particular activities being carried on in your school.

* * *

Part A: The questions in this first section refer to the particular curriculum study activities which have been developed in your school this year.

1. In what ways do you believe your participation in the activities of the curriculum study has been of help to you in your own teaching?

2. What has been your reaction to the way the teachers in your building have been organized for the curriculum study?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Not an effective use of time and energy	Fairly satisfactory but could have been improved	Very effective use of time and energy

Comments:

3. Did you have a feeling you knew where you were going in these activities?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Confused, saw no direction for myself	Had some idea, but not very definite	I felt a definite direction for myself

Comments:

4. Did you feel you were getting any place in these activities this spring?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

"Bogged down," saw little progress	Made fairly satisfactory progress	Made excellent progress

Comments:

5a. Please check from the list below the two (2) phrases which, in your opinion, best complete this sentence:

"Curriculum study activities are most worth while when they result in ...

1. _____ better selection of textbooks and teaching materials."

2. _____ greater personal satisfaction of the teachers in doing their job."

3. _____ changes in the teachers' day-to-day behavior in the classrooms."

4. _____ agreements and decisions about curriculum problems in the school."

5. _____ more satisfactory working relationships among the entire staff."

6. _____ greater community participation in curriculum planning."

7. _____ greater willingness to really try out ideas in the classroom."

8. _____ general agreement that the study activities have been worth while."

5b. Please circle the number of any of the areas above in which you feel significant improvement has been made in your own school this past year as a result of the curriculum study activities.

6. In general, how would you rate the curriculum study activities for this year?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

Been unprofitable to me	Quite valuable to me	Extremely helpful to me

Comments:

APPENDICES

Part B: The questions in this section refer to the more general aspects of the school which are often included in a broad definition of curriculum development.

7. How well do you feel that you and others in your faculty were able to contribute to curriculum improvement in your school?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Needed considerable outside help, staff had limited resources			Were able to make much of the needed contribution with little outside help			Were able to make all the contribution required for our school		

8. How close a working relationship have you felt you had with others on the faculty?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Each has gone his own way			Rather casual but generally cooperative			Very close, everybody pulling together		

9. There is a wide range of opinion about how effective curriculum development work gets done, and where the responsibilities rest for its accomplishment. Please rate each of the statements below by marking each of them according to the following scale:

   1 - This is entirely a responsibility of the administration of the school.

   2 - This is predominantly a responsibility of the administration with active teacher participation.

   3 - This is equally a responsibility of the administration and the teachers.

   4 - This is predominantly a responsibility of the teachers with active administration participation.

   5 - This is entirely a responsibility of the teachers.

   6 - This is not an important responsibility of either the teachers or the administration.

   a. _____ To attend the curriculum meetings and workshops which are held.

   b. _____ To apply or carry out the decisions reached in curriculum meetings.

   c. _____ To experiment with new ideas and procedures.

   d. _____ To suggest changes in the present curriculum.

   e. _____ To make decisions about changes in the curriculum of the school.

   f. _____ To work with parents on curriculum problems.

   g. _____ To select textbooks and teaching materials.

   h. _____ To examine the total school curriculum and its effectiveness.

   i. _____ To improve the teaching activities within the individual classroom.

   (Please use the back of this sheet for your comments.)

C. Subschedule 1
(Anonymous)

School No. _____

On the questionnaire which you filled out at the time of our previous visit the teachers suggested a variety of ways in which principals could be of more help to them. The scales below were suggested by these comments. Please check each of the scales at any place which best represents your feelings at the present.

10. How helpful is the principal's office in getting needed materials and supplies for you?

'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'
Does not give supply problems the attention I would like			Handles regular supply routines satisfactorily			Makes special efforts to get materials I need		

11. How well are you kept informed about the things which affect your work and your school?

Often not notified of information affecting my work		Usually notified of information _directly_ affecting my work		Kept up-to-date on all information related to my work and the school

12. When considering problems in the school, how clearly and consistently do you believe the respective responsibilities of the teachers and the principal have been defined?

Confused, never sure when I should take the initiative		Usually clear, but get principal's OK before taking initiative		Clear, feel free to take initiative in definite areas

13. How frequently do you find yourself being given encouragement and approval by the principal?

Rarely get any encouragement or approval		Get encouragement and approval occasionally		Get encouragement and approval frequently

14. Do you find it easy to talk with the principal about your ideas and suggestions for the school?

Difficult, hard to find an opportunity		Rather easy, if I have a very good idea		Easy for me at any time

VI. Test Instruments

A. Case Analysis

Test No. _____

Code No. _____

This inventory has been designed to find out how different people think about certain problems which arise in school situations. On the following pages are descriptions of situations in which a school administrator might find himself. Please place yourself in the position of the school head or principal in each case and respond to the questions which are given as you might respond in the actual situation.

Obviously, it is impossible to supply all of the information you might wish. In each case develop from your own experience the answers which seem to make the most sense to you. There are no right answers. Be selective in your responses—write only what you feel is important.

In each case, _place yourself in_ the _position of the school_ head, read the description carefully, and think about it before writing your responses to the various questions.

*   *   *

Miss Jones, a seventh grade teacher, has been given the responsibility of assigning boys and girls to various class sections. Miss Newton teaches some of these sections. She comes to your office and says, "My history class the third period has too many dull students. There shouldn't be that many in my class. I just can't make progress with so many of them to handle. Some of them should be assigned to another class section."

1. Specifically, what would you be likely to say to Miss Newton?

2. What are some of the reasons why Miss Newton might raise this problem?

3. What action, if any, would you take?

4. What do you think is a fundamental problem in this situation?

Do you feel you have difficulty dealing with situations like this?

Feel no difficulty		Feel some difficulty		Feel considerable difficulty

How real does this kind of
situation seem to you?

Very real,	Plausible,	Artificial,
likely to	might	never would
happen	possibly	happen
	happen	

* * *

At a faculty meeting, eight teachers of your staff of forty say that they object to
releasing students from their classes so that the students might have religious instruction
outside the school. Miss Arnold says, "If any student of mine misses class, he'll just
have to make up the work. It doesn't matter whether it's religious instruction or football
practice. Anyone who misses class will just have to catch up." The decision releasing
time for religious instruction was made by the school board.

1. Specifically, what response would you likely make to Miss Arnold at the meeting?

2. What, if anything, would you be apt to say or do after the meeting?

3. What, if anything, might you do at the next meeting of the school board?

4. What important issues might underlie this situation?

Do you feel you have difficulty
dealing with situations like this?

Feel no	Feel some	Feel
difficulty	difficulty	considerable
		difficulty

How real does this kind of
situation seem to you?

Very real,	Plausible,	Artificial,
likely to	might	never would
happen	possibly	happen
	happen	

* * *

You have just become principal of a school in which faculty meetings have been used to
tell teachers about school policy. You would like to have the teachers begin to share in
making some of the decisions about school policy. Some teachers have said to you, "One
thing we liked about Mr. Yost (the former principal) was the way he made decisions. It
saved a lot of time and prevented hard feelings among the faculty members to have him tell
us what the school policies were." Other teachers have told you, "Mr. Yost didn't seem to
trust us to make decisions. He always told us what should or should not be done. He
didn't seem to realize that we are professional people."

1. What are the implications of this difference of opinion among your faculty and Mr.
Yost?

2. What things might have to happen in this situation before there would be staff par-
ticipation in policy-making?

3. What first steps would you take in a long-run course of action?

4. What policies, if any, would you feel the teachers should not participate in deciding?

Do you feel you have difficulty
dealing with situations like this?

Feel no	Feel some	Feel
difficulty	difficulty	considerable
		difficulty

How real does this kind of
situation seem to you?

Very real,	Plausible,	Artificial,
likely to	might	never would
happen	possibly	happen
	happen	

* * *

Your school is in a rural community. One noon, over lunch, the science teacher re-
marks to you, "My students are getting excited about something they've been doing for
class. Maybe you've heard about it already. For a project they've been testing water in
a number of wells around here—at their own homes and at neighbors' farms. It looks as if
a lot of the wells are contaminated. It's surprising whose wells they are, too."

1. Is there anything you would be likely to do about the results of the testing done by
these students?

2. What reaction to this project, if any, would you expect from the community?

3. How do you think the students are likely to feel about their findings?

Do you feel you have difficulty dealing with situations like this?	Feel no difficulty	Feel some difficulty	Feel considerable difficulty

How real does this kind of situation seem to you?	Very real, likely to happen	Plausible, might possibly happen	Artificial, never would happen

B. Sentence Completion

Test No. _____

Code No. _____

Finish these sentences as fast as you can. Write down the <u>first</u> idea that comes to your mind.

Work Rapidly

1. School heads should

2. When teachers take part in making administrative decisions

3. In planning the budget

4. When a school head appoints a teacher committee he is

5. I sometimes hesitate to try out new methods because

6. A school principal is successful when

7. Influential people in the community

8. A poor teacher

9. Faculty meetings are

10. Persons who ignore lines of authority

11. When a teacher disagrees with his principal

12. In a good school

13. Discussion in a faculty meeting is likely to

14. Disrespect is

15. I dislike it when teachers

16. School administrators are often

17. Sometimes parent groups

C. Sentiments Inventory

(David H. Jenkins)

The statements which are listed below represent a variety of opinions about different topics. Some people agree with the statements and others disagree. Almost everyone has some opinion about them. There is no right or wrong answer; the best answer is the one which most nearly represents <u>the way you personally feel about the statement</u>.

Indicate your answers on the separate answer sheet. Use the special pencil which has been supplied. Mark under the letter which most nearly represents your opinion according to the following key:
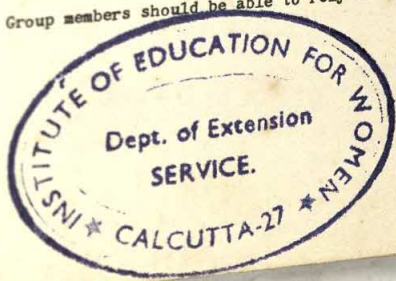
APPENDICES

A - Strongly or always agree with the statement.
B - Moderately or usually agree with the statement.
C - Undecided, don't know, or it doesn't make any difference.
D - Moderately or usually disagree with the statement.
E - Strongly or always disagree with the statement.

1. A lot more is learned in classes where there are good lectures by an authority than where there are class discussions.

2. A group should keep busy at its task and not waste time by discussing how effectively it is working.

3. Students should assume the responsibility of handling discipline problems in their classroom.

4. The school has its job to do, and there is no point in getting mixed up with other community agencies.

5. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.

6. One shouldn't question the statements of people who have spent many years studying a subject.

7. Tax money is too scarce to risk additional expense for damage to school property by letting groups from the community use the schools for their activities.

8. In cases of disagreement among class members, the teacher should be the final judge or arbitrator.

9. There is too much emphasis on cooperation in our schools and not enough preparation for our competitive society.

10. The most successful class is one where the teacher draws on his own experience to define problems which he knows the students will be facing.

11. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

12. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

13. Once a person has gotten a question settled for himself there is little point in re-opening the issue in the future.

14. Teachers who take their pupils on trips, have animals in the classroom, etc., are avoiding the main job they should be doing.

15. No technique is clearly democratic or autocratic.

16. Whatever else he does, a teacher should not allow students to criticize him openly in the classroom.

17. If there are parent organizations around the school it isn't long before they start meddling in school affairs.

18. Persons who are highly trained and hold good academic positions should know what the group members should do.

19. When students are apparently making no progress the teacher should take matters into his own hands and direct them.

20. One learns most efficiently by listening to good authorities.

21. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.

22. It is not the job of the school to be concerned about people who are over school age.

23. It is more efficient in a group if experts tell the group what it should do.

24. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

25. A teacher should expect the students to utilize outside sources and not take class time asking for information easily available elsewhere.

26. Issues about which there is strong disagreement in the community should not be discussed in the school.

27. The administrator of the school must be the one who decides what items appear on the agenda for faculty meetings.

28. There is a right and a wrong answer for almost every question one can raise.

29. A class should be able to count on the ability of its teacher to arrive independently of the class at decisions related to their actions.

30. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.

31. The schools should participate actively in organizations like community councils.

32. The teacher should assign members of the class to various jobs rather than expect them to sign up voluntarily.

33. After one has consulted good authorities he should be able to consider a question closed.

34. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

35. A group cannot take time to listen to everyone's ideas if it expects to get anything done.

36. If more school people would confine themselves to doing a good job of teaching children, and worry less about parent and community groups, the schools would do a much better job.

37. When a teacher's best efforts do not satisfy members of the class, they should openly criticize and communicate it to him.

38. In the last analysis, the leader is the one who has to see that things get done in the group.

39. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

40. Unless students come to grips with controversial issues in their community they are not really being educated.

41. Many times discussions are stimulating, but greater progress is made if there is a specialist who knows the answers present in the group.

42. Many schools have ineffective programs because they do not confine their activities to teaching children.

43. Disagreements from any member of the group should be given careful consideration before a group decision is reached.

44. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

45. One of the best contributions a school can make is to help the community become aware of its problems and needs.

46. Class members should be able to rely on the teacher to keep discipline in the class.

47. Schools have no business getting involved in health or welfare problems of the community at large.

48. When it comes right down to it, each of us has to look out for himself.

49. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

50. Schools are not teaching the fundamentals as well today as they used to.

51. When a group really wants to get something accomplished, the leader should be given the right to exercise definite authority.

52. It is important for the leader to keep the group members from getting into heated discussions so that no one gets his feelings hurt.

APPENDICES

53. An effective teacher should always take the responsibility upon himself to clarify problems which face the class.

54. Theoretically, it may be a fine idea, but practically, one cannot afford to risk damage to school property by letting outside groups use school facilities at night.

55. When it is possible to use either an individual or a committee, the assignment should be made to an individual to insure efficiency.

56. Children are educated for better citizenship when they are allowed to study the problems which exist right in the community.

57. Groups which use parliamentary procedures can probably make the most effective group decisions.

58. Competition among the agencies in a community is probably a healthy thing.

59. Because of the nature of the world in which he lives, an individual should look out for his own interests first.

60. The less there is a line drawn between school and community, the better.

61. Regardless of the maturity of the class, its members should be able to rely on the teacher to provide information necessary for the problems which the class is considering.

62. Faculty committees must make the best professional decisions which they can, even though parents may disagree strongly with those decisions.

63. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

64. It is up to the leader to put people in their place when the success of the group is endangered by their behavior.

65. The real criterion for judging any technique of dealing with other people is how quickly it will help the group get its task completed.

66. The true American way of life is disappearing so fast that force may be necessary to preserve it.

67. The school can do its best job when it becomes an integral part of life in the community.

68. Democratic group methods might have to be abandoned in order to solve urgent practical problems.

69. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

70. When the teacher assumes definite authority, it leads to greater personal security for class members than when the teacher and the students have the same authority.

71. It may be necessary to make use of autocratic methods in order to obtain difficult democratic objectives.

72. The real contributions to our society are made by people who received good education in the basic subjects and didn't waste their time in shop and laboratory activities.

73. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.

74. Practically, it is necessary to ignore the feelings of some members in a group in order to reach a group decision.

75. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.

76. Group members should be able to rely on the leader to keep discipline in the group.

The Cooperative Program in Educational Administration